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THE ELECTIONS: NEW YORK CITY

With a plurality of over a hundred and twenty thousand for its chief candidate, the Fusion ticket in New York City, with few exceptions, from top to bottom, in all the boroughs was elected last week. Not in years, if indeed ever in its history, has Tammany Hall suffered such a defeat at the hands of its enemies. For the first time one anti-Tammany administration is to be followed by another. It is true that four years ago Tammany elected its candidate for Mayor, but Mr. Gaynor was a Tammany Mayor mainly in the sense that, to use his own expression, he helped to make Tammany respectable. That Mr. Gaynor was not satisfactory to the rulers of Tammany Hall was demonstrated sufficiently when he failed to receive a renomination at their hands. Moreover, even if Mr. Gaynor might be called a Tammany Mayor, the administration of the city was for the most part in the hands of the majority of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment; and these men were anti-Tammany.

The government of New York City is in some respects not unlike the commission form of government that has grown up in the United States within the last few years. It is centered in a Board of Estimate and Apportionment, on which the Mayor has three votes, the President of the Board of Aldermen has three votes, the Comptroller has three votes, the Presidents of the Borough of Manhattan and of the Borough of Brooklyn have two each, and the Presidents of the Bronx, Queens, and Richmond have one each. Not one of these officials during the coming administration is to be a Tammany man.

THE ELECTIONS: NEW YORK CITY'S NEXT ADMINISTRATION

Mr. John Purroy Mitchel, the Mayor-elect, is one of the youngest men ever elected to so high an office in this country; and he not only is young, but shows his youth, as his picture in our illustrated section indicates. Few men, however, have had an experience so likely to fit a man for the mayoralty of New York as he. After being Assistant Corporation Counsel he was Commissioner of Accounts, and conducted investigations which resulted in the removal of two borough presidents. Elected as President of the Board of Aldermen, he showed marked effectiveness as Acting Mayor. For the past few months he has been Collector of the Port of New York. His independence and courage have given him the reputation of being radical. His selection as candidate for the Fusionists has been vindicated by his election. We expect it to be justified by his administration.

Like Mr. Mitchel, Mr. McAneny, elected to succeed him as President of the Board of Aldermen, is an Independent Democrat. He has won for himself the respect and confidence of the entire city to an extraordinary degree.

Mr. Prendergast, a Progressive, is re-elected as Comptroller. In the administration of the finances of the city Mr. Prendergast has rendered the city a service which has been so quietly and effectively performed that it has not perhaps been fully appreciated.

It is hardly necessary to report the election of District Attorney Whitman, a Republican, who was nominated by both the Fusionists and by Tammany. His nearest opponent was the nominee of the Socialists, who polled a vote that was large only in comparison with the Socialist vote of other New York municipal campaigns.

Even the Board of Aldermen has escaped from all danger of Tammany control if the anti-Tammany men who have been elected can be trusted to follow the expressed wishes of their constituents.

THE ELECTIONS: NEW YORK STATE

In the State at large the elections show the same revolt against Tammany. The effort of the Tammany boss to control the Democratic party in the Legislature was too successful. If Tammany had been content to use its power moderately, it might

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have retained its power, for the past Legislature enacted some good laws as well as some very bad ones; but in putting through the impeachment and removal of Governor Sulzer Tammany showed an arrogance which the people have rebuked.

Following an old habit, they have done so by putting the Republicans in power in the lower house; but at the same time they have elected so many men to the Assembly who are either themselves Progressive or have received Progressive indorsement that the Republican machine under Mr. Barnes should take heed to act circumspectly. The same revolt has elected Judge Hiscock, a conservative Republican candidate for Associate Judge of the Court of Appeals, and if it has failed to bring about the election of Judge Werner, another conservative Republican, as Chief Judge, it is only because the conservative Democratic candidate received the indorsement of the Independence League.

OTHER STATE ELECTIONS

The result of the State elections in Massachusetts and New Jersey has not unnaturally been regarded as an indorsement of the President's policies, especially of his tariff policy, as Massachusetts and New Jersey are two of the strongest manufacturing States in the Union. The action of these States might indicate that most of their citizens were not apprehensive of the effects of the new tariff with its unwarranted income tax provision. Does it? Not without qualification. In both States the non-Democratic vote remains in the majority. As, however, of the total vote of Massachusetts, Mr. Walsh, the Governor-elect, has apparently a greater percentage than President Wilson had a year ago in the National election, and as in New Jersey Mr. Fielder, the Governor-elect, has a greater percentage than Mr. Wilson polled a year ago, it should be said that the difference in this year's percentages from last year's does form an encouragement to the Administration.

The Progressive vote took second place in Massachusetts and third in New Jersey. In the first State the vote was large and important; in the second it seemed small and unimportant. And yet in both States the Progressive candidates were men of singularly engaging personality and character. In both States, however, the Progressive strength is real, though in New Jersey the primary system in vogue may have had some effect in discouraging its full expression.

The elections indicate that many of the people of the two States have even less use for reactionary doctrines disguised as "new Republicanism" than they have for enlightened conservatism. In Massachusetts the contest was clear cut; in New Jersey it was not. As between the Republican and the Progressive party Massachusetts has answered in no uncertain tone. In New Jersey, however, many machine Democrats voted against Governor Fielder, while many of the progressively inclined in the other parties voted for Governor Fielder simply to show their disgust with the old Smith-Nugent machine; others voted for him because they feared a plurality election in favor of ex-Governor Stokes.

The result in both Massachusetts and New Jersey was, we believe, the expression on the part of certainly a very large number of voters for steady-going progressive policies.

THE FIRST SENATOR DIRECTLY ELECTED

The political situation in Maryland turned chiefly around the election of a United States Senator. Mr. Blair Lee, a Democrat, has the honor of being the first United States Senator to be chosen directly by the ballots of the voters. Maryland is, it need not be said, normally and except under stress of very peculiar circumstances a Democratic State, and Mr. Lee's large plurality over the Republican and Progressive candidates was a surprise to no one.

Senator Lee succeeds Senator Jackson (Republican), who was appointed to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Rayner (Democrat). The question has been raised whether, since Senator Jackson was appointed before the Seventeenth Amendment went into effect, he may not claim that his appointment holds good until the date when the unexpired term he was to fill ends—that is, until March, 1917. If there is any force in this argument, it is technical rather than reasonable, and would indicate a neglect on the part of Congress to revise the statute of elections so that it would correspond with the evident purpose of the amendment. Mr. Lee's election was strongly opposed by the Anti-Saloon League of Maryland, which asserted that he was "supported by the liquor interests of the State in return for services in

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helping to defeat a State-wide local option bill in the last Legislature." The Anti-Saloon League conducted a campaign, by advertising and otherwise, in which it remonstrated against Secretary Bryan's seven speeches, which made, the League avers, "one of the most desperate appeals on the basis of personal friendship and not 'to tie President Wilson's hands' ever made by a National Administration in any State." Mr. Bryan insisted that not local option but National issues were in question, whereupon the League has invited him to speak after the election in favor of local option—apparently with no reply.

The opposition to Lee was, because of this local option issue, concentrated in support of the Republican candidate, and apparently he polled a large part of what would otherwise have been Progressive votes.

MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS

Municipal elections of more than local interest and importance occurred in many cities. The number of Fusion tickets in the field bears testimony to that increasing independence of mind with which the average voter is learning to approach the solution of the difficult problems of modern city government.

In Rochester the highly efficient Aldridge (Republican) machine defeated the Fusion ticket put forward by both Democrats and Progressives. In Buffalo a Progressive ticket, indorsed almost in entirety by a Citizens' party, failed unfortunately to carry the city against a united Democracy. The Republican ticket ran a bad third. In Syracuse a Progressive Mayor was elected in a close three-cornered fight, the Democratic and Republican candidates coming in respectively second and third. In Schenectady the Fusion movement took the form of a combined effort by Republicans, Democrats, and Progressives to oust the Socialists from command, an effort which, as in the parallel case of Milwaukee, proved successful. This victory, however, contains cold comfort for those who believe that Socialism is losing ground, for Mayor Lunn received a larger vote than was given him at the election which placed him in office. It was with regret that those familiar with the record of the Democratic Mayor of Cincinnati, Mayor Hunt, learned of his defeat at the hands of the Cox Republican machine, which has so long controlled that city. In another Ohio municipality, Toledo, Brand Whitlock, whose humane views of government are known so widely that he may be fairly considered a National figure, was defeated for re-election. His successful Republican opponent during the progress of the campaign directed his attack chiefly against Mayor Whitlock's views on Sunday enforcement. Louisville, Kentucky, as was to be expected, elected a Democratic Mayor by a comfortable majority over his Progressive rival. The Progressive candidate, Mr. Axton, received over twenty thousand votes, showing up strongly beside the Republican candidate, who received considerably less than two thousand. Throughout the State, however, the Progressive vote was very light.

Perhaps the most disappointing outcome of all election contests occurred in Philadelphia. Mayor Blankenburg's term of office has fortunately two years to run, but this year's election shows a decided reaction from the flood tide of genuine reform which two years ago placed him at the head of the Philadelphia city government. The "cohesive power of public plunder" once more made itself emphatically felt. The Republican machine elected its entire county ticket by a majority of many thousands. The disheartening effect of this setback comes not from the knowledge that the machine, as always happens, presented a solid front, but from the realization that those citizens who believe in good government failed to hang together at the moment when the crucial test came. Perhaps this check to that reform movement which has accomplished so much for the civic betterment of Philadelphia may spur these citizens to an effort which shall place in the Mayor's office in 1915 an "anti-contractor" successor to Mayor Blankenburg as courageous and as independent as himself.

WHY FUSION FAILED IN PHILADELPHIA

A correspondent closely in touch with Philadelphia's city government sends us a graphic account of the reason why he believes that Fusion failed in this year's campaign. He writes:

"The reasons for the setback that reform has suffered seem to be:

"1. The Mayor, a fight-lover, precipitated a hopeless breach with the City Council by the uncompromising belligerency of his attitude. He advocated eighty-cent gas, and when the plan was shown to be impractica-

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ble he withdrew the proposal. He proposed manufacturing taxes, dog taxes, cigarette taxes, sub-basement taxes, and others whose German inspiration the rank and file couldn't understand. His Director of Public Safety and right-hand man has not seemed to the people to deal with big things in a big way. His private secretary has not known how to handle the newspaper men to the best effect. The camp-followers who fringe every political movement are disappointed because civil service rules were not overturned for their benefit; this selfish element among the reformers thought the 'gang' had fed at the trough long enough and that it was their turn.

"2. The 'corrupt and criminal combination masquerading as Republicans' are an organized, well-drilled, and cohesive army. The house of reform was divided against itself by pitiful picayunish squabbles and horse-swaps while crossing the stream. Men like Giboney, who should have been unequivocally for the Fusion ticket, tried to ride with the hounds and run with the hares.

"3. The Mayor's personal ascendency is such that he could almost have turned the scale by his own appearance to lead the fight if he had not been sick all the fall. The commanding general was absent from the field of battle, and he was without able lieutenants.

"4. The recession of the tide, the return trip of the pendulum, is a frequent mob-phenomenon after a reform victory agonizingly won."

Further comment on the significance of the elections is to be found on another page.

LAWLESSNESS IN INDIANAPOLIS

When one reads that two men were shot and killed and many injured in rioting following a street-car strike in Indianapolis last week, one can almost relate the sequence of events without further news. In fact, the story, as told in the Indianapolis newspapers, almost repeats that of the Philadelphia carmen's strike of 1909, and of the similar strike, years before, in Brooklyn. The men wanted better wages and hours, and also (as almost always in these strikes) a better arrangement of working time and of computing wages due; they laid great stress, moreover, on the right to have grievances presented to the company by a "committee of the organization"—that is, their union—and they asked for "an arbitration clause to arbitrate all questions that cannot be satisfactorily adjusted between the parties." The company declared that there was nothing to arbitrate, that wages and hours were fair, and employed new men, or, as the strikers assert, professional strike-breakers. Attempts to run cars with non-union men were followed by rioting and violence—the strikers (again as always) asserting that they took no part in the violence and that the rioters were "rabble" and "hoodlums." Police clubbing, stone-throwing by the mob, and finally shooting by the strike-breakers and by the street rioters, followed. Governor Ralston declared that the city authorities were not controlling the situation, and that he would establish martial law if the disgraceful exhibition were not ended. Many hundred members of the National Guard were held ready for the enforcement of order.

"Lawlessness" may mean violation of law, or it may mean lack of law. The disgrace to Indiana (and to other States equally) is that there is no law to make it impossible for contending industrial opponents, both employed in the public service, to refuse to render service to the public, to make the city's streets a battlefield, and to injure and outrage the rights and convenience of the citizens at large. In such a fight the public loses at every turn. In the public's name, then, it should be made a punishable offense for public utility employees to go on strike in a body, and it should be equally an offense to refuse the men a fair opportunity to present their case before a just and unbiased board of arbitration. Governor Ralston is quoted as saying: "If my life is spared, I will take a stand at the next session of the Legislature for an arbitration law that will arbitrate." The Erdman Law, non-coercive though it be, has averted great railway strikes; cities and States have only to provide a reasonable method of arbitration for public-utility labor disputes, to find that neither party will lightly challenge public indignation by refusing arbitration.

THE SITUATION IN MEXICO

The tenseness of relations between the United States and Mexico continued last week, with every indication that in some way a critical point was about to be reached. The newspapers are extremely fond of the word "ultimatum;" and when it became

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rumored that a new remonstrance or new representations had been transmitted by our State Department to General Huerta, the situation was made unduly sensational by constant use of the word "ultimatum." Secretary Bryan at once denied that anything of that nature had been sent, and there was a temporary suspension in the rather loose talk about impending war or blockade. This had received some encouragement also from the reported orders to our war-vessels, which were interpreted to mean that a larger naval force is to be kept in Mexican waters.

The nature of the communications from President Wilson or Mr. Bryan to Huerta has not, as we write, been made public officially. On the other hand, there has been no denial of the general rumor that Huerta has been informed that the United States will not in any way recognize the recent so-called election as valid; that it will not indorse the plan for a new election to be ordered by the Congress which has just been "elected," and which would undoubtedly be Huerta's subservient tool, and that it calls upon Huerta to carry out the promise, long ago made, that he would remove himself from the presidential situation. Mr. John Lind, President Wilson's special representative in Mexico, toward the end of the week left Vera Cruz for Mexico City; and it is believed that General Huerta wished to discuss the matter with him. Semi-official intimations from Mexico were to the effect that Huerta proposes to seat the new Congress, to allow it to declare the recent presidential elections void, and to allow it also to arrange for a new election some time in the future. This course would not appeal to our State Department as likely to bring about a satisfactory state of affairs, nor would a substitution of Blanquet for Huerta be welcomed. Intimations from Washington, following the public discussion of the situation, lay stress on the assertion that no threat of force has been made, and that the Administration is still trying to settle the difficulty through moral suasion.

There was no confirmation of the rumors that President Wilson has it in mind to recognize the Carranza forces as belligerents, or to remove the embargo on the exportation of arms and ammunition to the insurgents. General Carranza himself opposes any idea of American intervention in Mexico, and on Friday of last week there was even a report that an agreement for a temporary truce between the Federalists and the insurgents under General Carranza was under discussion. Various insurgent successes in the military field are reported, but it is difficult to judge of their importance. An interesting picture of General Carranza and some of his troops will be found on another page.

The financial and commercial situation in Mexico continues to be unsatisfactory. The decree of last week making bank notes and fifty-cent pieces legal tender to any amount will increase prices and disturb business, although the bank notes have a specie reserve behind them.

THE PUZZLES OF THE INCOME TAX

An early indication of the confusion of mind among taxpayers and even lawyers as to just what must or may be done under the provisions of the Income Tax Law was observed on the first of this month.

It has been predicted that the chief trouble would come over the collection of certain forms of income "at the source;" thus, employers must withhold and pay the normal (one per cent) tax on that amount of salaries of employees which exceeds the legal exemption; this exemption is $3,000 for single and $4,000 for married taxpayers. But the section of the law dealing with collecting tax on salaries at the source says nothing about the $4,000, but explicitly uses the words "$3,000." Herein may lie trouble in the future.

What puzzled people on November 1 was the process of the payment of bond interest at the source—that is, by the debtor corporations. Even the thousands of people who had supposed themselves free from income tax troubles because their incomes were less than $3,000 met trouble or delay when they cut off coupons from the few bonds they had. The Government requires from the corporation (or from its paying agent) that when the corporation pays the tax "at the source" it should file with the coupons certificates from all the owners describing the bonds, the amount of interest, the fact as to claiming or not claiming exemption, and so on. Banks did not like to pay cash for coupons, and had trouble in making coupon-owners understand the certificates. To add to the confusion, wrongly worded certificates were issued and then withdrawn. Also came up the question of the responsibilities and duties of corpora-

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tions whose bonds were guaranteed to be free of tax. More time was given by the Government, and the temporary flurry subsided.

The incident shows the need of extreme care in giving to individuals instructions as to just what the law of collection at the source means, and just what each taxpayer is obliged to do, and where, if at all, he has alternative courses of action. People are quite as indignant at being pestered and confused as they are by being made to pay out money, and an Income Tax Law is not so popular in itself as to make the average citizen patient under involved and intricate orders as to how he is to calculate his own tax.

THE HARVESTER SUIT

One of the most important cases ever brought before a court of law under the Federal Anti-Trust statute is now before the United States District Court at St. Paul, Minnesota. Its importance is to be found partly in the fact that it is sure to disclose the attitude of the present Administration with regard to the whole question of trusts and monopolies, and partly in the fact that the combination which the Government now seeks to dissolve is one against which the accusation is not that of evil practices, but rather of menacing size.

In his arguments for the dissolution of the International Harvester Company before this Court on Wednesday of last week, the Attorney-General of the United States, Mr. James C. McReynolds, pointed out the fact that, whereas in 1903 the company did a total business of fifty-three million dollars, by 1912 it had increased its business to one hundred and twenty-five million dollars. Thus he pointed out its enormous capitalization and vast assets. He alleged that this company held ninety-eight per cent of the country's business in binders, eighty-five per cent of the business in rakes, and so on, and declared that no one who looked upon that picture could fail to see that that concern "had the absolute power to fix prices." On this ground he asked for its dissolution in such form that the stockholders of the different parts should be distinct.

The argument on behalf of the Harvester Company may be indicated by the statement of the Company's counsel, Judge McHugh, in quoting the old English maxim, "Tell me what you've done under a deed and I'll tell you what the deed is." In brief, this argument was that the total effect of the Harvester Company was beneficial, not destructive.

In this suit there is plainly involved the issue whether the evil of the trust, so called, lies in the fact that it is big, without regard to its character. Of course this suit, when it is finished, will not determine what the policy of the country ought to be with regard to trusts, but simply what the present law is. That the present law is inadequate seems hardly to need further proof. No law which makes a series of lawsuits necessary for the regulation of business is an adequate law. Mr. McReynolds in his argument said that, as regards this law, "intent is wholly immaterial." If that is the law, it is not a good law. No men ought to be subject to criminal prosecution who with entirely good intent have built up a business which the Government thinks is menacing. Such men ought to have an opportunity of knowing in advance what the Government regards as permissible or not. This can be accomplished only by the establishment of an adequate administrative commission to deal with every such question on its merits.

THE "RITUAL MURDER" CASE

The trial of Mendel Beilis in Kiev, described in Mr. Kennan's article in The Outlook last week, is nearing its end, and the result will probably be known when this number reaches our readers. Meanwhile in this country there has been presented to the State Department a remarkable petition to the Czar signed by thirty-five distinguished Christian clergymen in America. Many churches are represented. Among the signers are Cardinal Farley, Bishop Greer and many other bishops of the Catholic and Protestant Episcopal and Methodist Churches, Charles S. MacFarland of the Federal Council, and prominent representatives of the Congregationalist, Presbyterian, Universalist, and other denominations. This petition calls attention to the ukase of Alexander I of Russia forbidding prosecutions for alleged ritual murders, quotes bulls from four Popes declaring the superstition a wicked invention, and urges that the charge against Beilis be withdrawn because of the untold evils to the cause of humanity which may follow further prosecution. Our State Department declined to forward the petition on the ground

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that the Russian Government had refused, as in the Kishinev massacre case, to receive protests from American citizens about Russian affairs. The petition was then sent to the Russian Ambassador at Washington. Whatever its fate, it is a vigorous, manly protest by united Christian leaders against bigotry, superstition, and oppression. It will have its effect in civilized countries, if not in Russia.

CATHOLIC ATTITUDE TOWARD "RITUAL MURDER"

In discussing the Beilis case, under the heading "The Superstition that Never Dies," the "Slovo," of Warsaw, the organ of the conservative Catholics of Poland, says editorially: "The question of 'ritual murder' is not an open question with us. It has been settled by the highest authorities of our Church. Our Popes and Catholic monarchs have unanimously declared that ritual murder among the Jews does not exist, and they have punished severely, even to the extent of excommunication, Catholics who have charged the Jews with using Christian blood in their religious services. Among the spiritual and temporal powers who have condemned this superstition, and whose authority all Polish Catholics must recognize, are: Popes—Innocent I, Gregory X, Martin V, Nicholas V, Paul III, Sixtus IV, Benedict XIV, and Clement XIV; Kings—Boleslav V, Casimir the Great, Casimir Yagellon, Stephen Batory, and Stanislaus Augustus.

"These are the authorities, recognized by Polish Catholics, who have condemned irrevocably and infallibly the ritual fable. To these must be added the statements of learned theologians and secular scientists, as well as the records of investigations that have traced this superstition to its earliest and most remote root, and have shown its utter falsity. The ritual story is a lie and a disgrace to humanity."

CONGREGATIONALISTS IN COUNCIL

The National Council of Congregational Churches, whose proceedings were reported in part last week, is not a legislative and judicial but an advisory and administrative body. The fellowship of the churches which it was organized to promote is a fellowship in missionary and other benevolent work, as well as in religious faith. Last week The Outlook printed the Council's confession of the faith in which that work is undertaken.

Simultaneously with that confession new by-laws were adopted for the greater efficiency of the churches in that work. It had been carried on for many years, beginning in 1810, by voluntary societies—harmoniously indeed, but independently both of one another and of direction by the churches supporting them. These have now assumed their collective responsibility for the work done in their name by a new plan for unifying and co-ordinating it systematically. The way to this had already been prepared by a tentative approach in recent years. The committee charged with its formulation presented their conclusions to the Council after protracted open hearings had disposed of questions and objections born of the traditional repugnance of Congregationalists to any savor of centralized authority. It was adopted with auspicious unanimity at the end of a morning's debate.

In the new order, briefly stated, the voluntary societies are proportionately represented in the Council, and the Council elects the managing boards of each. A commission on missionary work, advisory to the Council, is constituted, of fourteen elected by the Council and one chosen by each of the societies. The change from triennial to biennial meetings of the Council will be distinctly helpful to the working of this arrangement, under such leaders as the newly elected Moderator and Secretary of the Council, Dr. Charles R. Brown, Dean of the Yale Divinity School, and Dr. Herbert C. Herring, Secretary of the Congregational Home Missionary Society.

A great advance has thus been made since the formation of the National Council was opposed as dangerous to the autonomy of the churches. To give, however, such a large body administrative functions seems venturesome, to say the least; but the effort to unify the missionary work of the denomination is one to be commended. Much enthusiasm was manifested in the prospect of greater solidarity in Christian work. The catholic spirit which belongs to such work was expressed in the Council's message of greeting to the Universalist Convention at Chicago, expressing "desire to co-operate with you in every good work in the name of our common Lord and Master."

One act of the Council is difficult to reconcile with Congregational principles—its indorsement of a plan for an amendment

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to the National Constitution prohibiting forever the manufacture and sale of intoxicating beverages, and their importation, exportation, and transportation throughout the United States. Governor Baldwin, of Connecticut, who was a delegate present, condemned this as incompatible with the fundamental American principle of home rule. We believe it is not in the interest of the most effective restraint of the liquor traffic. More reasonable was the protest of the Council against the recent segregation of white and colored employees in the Government offices at Washington.

GENERAL WILLIAM BRAMWELL BOOTH AND THE SALVATION ARMY

To most people the words "Salvation Army" call to mind the picture of a dozen men and women grouped under the sputtering blue-white flare of an arc light shouting a rudely worded hymn to still ruder music and the insistent throbbing and booming of a big bass drum. The indifference of the busy passers-by, the uncouth jesting of the loungers, the swirling snow which too often veils the dark heights of their chosen temple, seem of no more consequence to them than that rustling of dresses and shuffling of feet which sometimes makes itself heard above the voice of the priest within the confines of an orthodox cathedral.

Of the size of this "army of salvation," its object, and its method of attack, the passer-by, engrossed in affairs of peculiar importance to himself, and with no realization of that great want and void which these militant evangelists are attempting to fill, knows little, cares less. He condemns their view of God as narrow, fanatical, tawdry, grudgingly admits perhaps that they are "doing some good work," and lets it go at that. Even the better-informed, familiar perhaps with the long struggle which the founder of this organization intolerantly waged against intolerance, the difficulties that beset the actual embodiment of his autocratic ideal, and the story of the final recognition of the movement which he fathered as a genuine and vital expression of certain phases of the Christian spirit, frequently have little conception of the wide-spreading influence of this "army of the Lord."

General William Bramwell Booth, whose portrait appears elsewhere in this issue, is the accepted leader of an army which, with its affiliated agencies, numbers over a hundred thousand men and women. By his authority some eighty-two periodicals are issued, scores of industrial homes and schools, shelters for women and children, hotels for men, and farms for the "down and out" are maintained. The Salvation Army has an annual revenue from its industries and from voluntary contributions of thirty million dollars.

The present commander is the son of the founder of the organization, having been selected for the office which he fills upon the death of his father. He has now for the first time come to the United States to study the progress of the "war," as he terms it, which the American branch of the Salvation Army is waging, and perhaps, as some have suggested, to search for a method of reconciling the American Salvation Army with its independent offshoot, the Volunteers of America. Like his father, the present General Booth is what may be called a benevolent despot. The property and the policy of the Army, even the determination of his successor, are under his absolute control. The Volunteers of America, on the other hand, are organized on a democratic rather than an autocratic basis. Whether the Salvation Army, organized as at present, can maintain itself beyond the life of its present leader is a grave question. Indeed, it is said that General Booth himself is inclined towards the inauguration of a more democratic method of control.

PASTEUR AND THE PASTEUR INSTITUTE

So familiar is practically every one to-day with the fact that germs are the cause of many a disease, and that those diseases can be combated by attacking the germs, that it is hard to realize how recent all this knowledge is. On the 14th of November (Friday of this week) occurs the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Pasteur Institute in Paris. This was one of the early products of the knowledge that Louis Pasteur had acquired concerning these minute forms of life, or, as they are called, micro-organisms.

It was Pasteur who discovered the reason for the fermentation of beer and the souring of milk. Up to that time there was serious discussion as to whether the little organisms which caused such fermentation or souring were not spontaneously generated, or the product of the inorganic substances of the liquid itself. It was Pasteur who proved, in spite of discouragement from fellow-scien-

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tists, that by excluding all avenues of access to these liquids from the air these micro-organisms did not appear. From such simple beginnings has grown the whole science of bacteriology. One result alone is worth all that investigation has cost and a thousand times as much again—namely, the saving of the lives of mothers who would have otherwise died of blood-poisoning at childbirth.

The Pasteur Institute is but one product of this science. In this Institute, and similar institutes in other parts of the world has been carried on the treatment of the dreadful disease known as rabies, or hydrophobia. The method of inoculation in that treatment is shown in the illustrated section in this issue. Though this is not a common disease in civilized countries (it is virtually, if not actually, unknown in England), it is so surely fatal unless treated, and is such an agonizing disease, that all that has been done by the Pasteur Institute has been of great beneficence.

AN INTERNATIONAL CRITIC

International criticism fills a large place in the literature of this age of travel and increasing intimacy of intercourse between the races which make civilization interesting by variety of character and custom. When Emerson wrote "English Traits," the books of international comment were few and had the charm of novelty to a host of untraveled people. Emerson's divination gave his account of the English lasting value, but most of the books which followed in the same field were important largely because of the information they conveyed. That stage has been passed, and to-day the book that treats of a foreign country must have literary charm, as has Mr. Howells's recent delightful study of familiar places in Spain, or broad knowledge and pungent criticism.

These were the qualities which made the chapters of international comment which Mr. Price Collier had been contributing to "Scribner's Magazine" for several years past interesting both to the traveled and the untraveled. Educated at Geneva and Leipsic, and later at Harvard, Mr. Collier had the opportunities, though not always the temper, of true cosmopolitanism. It was a matter of chance that he died suddenly in the island of Fünen in the Baltic Sea; but it was in keeping with the habits of a lifetime that when the end came he was in a foreign country and was gathering material for a new book.

Mr. Collier's later books greatly enlarged his audience, and were much more important than his earlier writing. His "England and the English from an American Point of View" was both friendly and acutely critical. Mr. Collier's own point of view was in many respects English rather than American. His criticism of the English was often sharp, but it was tempered by great admiration. With this attitude Americans did not quarrel, but they saw clearly in his comments on American society that he was too much out of sympathy with democracy to speak fairly or intelligently for America. His strong English bias came out in "The West in the East," which contained much that was interesting and much that was misleading, because the writer was attempting to interpret the East from the standpoint of the West, an attempt which can never succeed. Some of his statements about the Japanese were not only unjust but highly offensive in spirit. His latest chapters on the Germans have been overweighted with information and overelaborated, and have awakened resentment in Germany.

Mr. Collier had great energy of mind, but lacked the judicial quality; he rarely failed to be interesting, but he was often unfair; his style was vivid and effective, but he was often arrogant and dogmatic. He was an incisive and brilliant rather than a dispassionate observer.

THE BRANGWYN ETCHINGS

Mr. Weitenkampf, Chief of the Prints Division in the Public Library of New York City, has replaced the public exhibition of colored prints at the library by one of etchings. The exhibition will be open until the middle of January.

The etchings are by the English artist Frank Brangwyn. He was born at Bruges, Belgium, in 1867. It may be said, we think, that Mr. Brangwyn uses the art of etching as no one else has used it. Americans have now a good chance to see a fairly representative exhibition of his work, one giving a comprehensive idea of the essential qualities of the etcher's style.

Mr. Brangwyn's work, as a whole, is extraordinarily vital and vivid. The boldness and freedom of his plates, combined with their

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size, inevitably suggest their use as wall decorations, and this suggestion is emphasized by the manner in which they are displayed at the library. Compared with the work of other etchers, Mr. Brangwyn's lines seem sometimes almost rough and crude. Indeed, the Brangwyn achievement is hardly an example of line work save as the line is used purely as a skeleton. A skeleton is always to be commended when it is strong, as is Mr. Brangwyn's, but the chief distinction of this work is, in our opinion, to be found in the masses of "atmosphere" attained by strenuous and effective contrasts of light and shade. Strenuous? Yes, and sometimes vehemently strenuous. These, rendered in a large way, produce a striking decorative effect. Thus we note first of all in Mr. Brangwyn's work its essentially decorative quality, accentuated as it is by manipulation in printing. The result of all is the quality we call tone.

Take, for instance, the familiar London theme in the Brangwyn etching reproduced in the illustrated section of this number of The Outlook. In this sketch we have actuality not so much in line or quality as in the seeming warmth and in an entirely colorful impression. Mr. Brangwyn's technique was perhaps never more characteristic than in this performance.

THE EXCHANGE PROFESSOR FROM JAPAN

The death of Dr. Okakura, who had been appointed exchange professor from Japan to the United States on the Carnegie Foundation, and who was to deliver a series of lectures in the American universities and colleges during the coming winter, involves the loss of a presentation of Japanese art which would have been illuminating and deeply interesting, for there was no greater expert in knowledge of the subject and in ability to deal with it by definition and description than the author of "The Ideals of the Far East." The vacancy in the professorship has been filled by the appointment of Dr. Shosuke Sato, President of the Northeastern University, a man of high character, of thorough education, well qualified to interpret the spirit and life of his country to Americans. The men of the north are exceptionally vigorous and capable, and have furnished some of the strongest leaders of modern Japan. Dr. Sato has the characteristics of his section. As a schoolboy he was notable for high spirits and daring. Dr. Sato and Dr. Nitobe, his predecessor in the exchange professorship, were students at the Johns Hopkins University at the time when President Wilson was there. Dr. Sato supplemented his work in Baltimore by further work in Germany, and on his return to Japan, in 1886, was appointed to a professorship in Northeastern University, and became its Dean in 1894. His ideals, his good judgment, and his persistence have been of great service to the institution of which he is a head. He has steadily advanced its standards until he has put it solidly on the University basis. He lacks the brilliant qualities and the literary charm which Dr. Okakura would have brought to the lectureship; but he will bring clear intelligence, steady judgment, and an open mind in his presentations of Japan to Americans. He has the qualities which win respect and confidence. His lectures will not begin until January, and if Americans are as broad-minded and eager to learn as the Japanese, he will receive not only a very cordial welcome, but appreciative hearing.

THE ROLL OF HEROES

Seventy-seven awards for various kinds of heroic service have recently been announced by the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission. Of these, sixteen go to Texas and fifteen to New York. Seven of the fifteen who earned medals and money have earned them by some act of courage and helpfulness in the city of New York. The distribution includes fifty bronze, twenty-six silver, and one gold medal awarded to heroes or to the members of their families in cases where they lost their lives. In addition to the $72,000 awarded outright, eleven pensions averaging $50 a month were awarded. Of the seventy-seven named by the Commission, eighteen lost their lives in attempting to help others. It is interesting to know that of these seventy-seven, twenty-two were under twenty-one years of age, and of these four were girls, one being only eight years old.

One of the most striking acts of bravery recognized by the Commission was that of Arthur Lockett, from Georgia, a fireman. Running a train at twenty-five miles an hour, Lockett noticed a three-year-old boy on the track, only a hundred and twenty-five feet ahead of the engine. The emergency brakes were applied, and under their pressure the engine was swaying violently, when Lockett ran

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along the running-board, jumped from the steam-chest to the bumper timber, and, when the locomotive was within ten feet of the child, jumped to the track in front of the engine, the speed of which had been reduced to about eight miles an hour, tripped, and fell as he did so, but with wonderful quickness seized the child and threw himself off the track.

The objection has sometimes been made that this Fund takes the bloom off heroism by giving it publicity, and that it commercializes bravery; but in a time when every possible crime, every form of meanness and selfishness, is exploited at great length by the newspapers it is well that the story of good deeds should be told as often and as completely as possible. The whole country lives in an atmosphere of crime, and it makes one shudder to think of the effect through suggestion of the stories of every form of uncleanness which fill the newspapers. While these conditions last, the health of society demands that the newspapers should print a roll of heroes as well as the roll of scoundrels, and that the murderers, thieves, defaulters, and violators of the marriage vow should not be the only persons celebrated by the daily press.

WOMEN'S WORK FOR WOMEN

Perhaps the most spectacular feature of the campaign to raise money for the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Association of New York City is found in the use of clocks. One with a dial fifteen feet across is being set up on the new Morgan Building in the lower part of New York City, facing the statue of Washington and catching the eyes of the "hurrying rich" in Wall, Broad, and Nassau Streets. The diameter of this clock, however, is only half the size of the one being placed in the Metropolitan Tower, uptown, a clock to be lighted at night, and with figures visible from towns far out on the Jersey meadows, Westchester, and Long Island, thus drawing the attention of those philanthropically inclined who might happen to be far from Manhattan. The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations of New York City are entering upon the most remarkable "begging campaign" of their careers. In two weeks from November 10 they expect to raise four million dollars.

Why should three million dollars of the sum be assigned to the Young Women's Association? Because its work just now deserves more proportionate help than does the Young Men's. The Young Men's Christian Association of New York City was established in 1852, the Young Women's in 1870. The Young Men's Association owns property in the city valued at over three million dollars; the value of the Young Women's properties is only about a quarter of a million, and yet every one knows that the Young Women's work is, to say the least, quite as necessary as that of the Young Men's.

The Young Women's Association has at present a Central Branch in East Fifteenth Street, a Harlem Branch, a West Side Branch, a French Branch, a Colored Women's Branch, a boarding home, a Studio Club for art students, a club for nurses, and an International Institute for immigrant girls—to mention the most important of its activities. It has nearly three thousand students enrolled in its educational classes, thirty different subjects being taught, and in its classes for Bible study over twelve hundred young women are enrolled. Out of nearly twenty-four hundred applications for positions about fifteen hundred women have been placed in a single year and about five thousand assisted to find boarding places.

But there is a great need for an extension of the Young Women's work. It should have a main building on the East Side for physical, social, educational, and religious purposes, where young women can gather and have meetings and entertainments of various sorts. Similar buildings should be erected in Harlem and other parts of the city.

THE EXPERIMENT IN STATE LIFE INSURANCE

State life insurance became a reality in this country October 27, when the Insurance Commissioner of Wisconsin issued over two hundred policies in accordance with a law passed in 1911. Similar laws exist in Great Britain, Canada, Italy, Germany, Belgium, Norway, and New Zealand. The Wisconsin Act gave Mr. Ekern, the Insurance Commissioner, two years in which to establish this new phase of governmental activity. The purpose of the State life fund is, of course, to give the people of the State the benefit of the best "old line" insurance (as distinguished from fraternal benefits) on a mutual plan at a low cost. It aims to save the policy-holder the

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agent's commission and the overhead charges. Saving is made possible through the co-operation of various governmental departments, under which the Insurance Commissioner acts as administrator and the State Board of Health as medical board, while the State Treasurer invests the funds and the Attorney-General gives legal advice. This use of existing State machinery is obviously economical.

Wisconsin issues seven different forms of policies—the ordinary life, twenty-payment life, twenty-year endowment, endowment at age of sixty-five, ten-year endowment, ten-year term, and term to age of sixty-five. Monthly and weekly premium rates have been worked out so that working people are expected to take advantage of the plan, which not only proposes to give sound insurance at a low cost, but to pay a dividend each year, with the right to borrow and the right to surrender for cash. In addition to all this it protects the individual against forfeiture for non-payment of premium by charging a premium as a loan. The State assumes no liability beyond the amount of the fund established by the contributions of the policy-holders.

It is stated that in Wisconsin there are about 700,000 males of the insurable age. Of these 129,676 carry old line insurance and 251,614 fraternal, making a total of 381,290, not much more than one-half. Besides this large proportion of uninsured men, whom the advantages of State insurance may attract, there is a vast majority of women, many of them with dependents.

The State of Washington has a system of compulsory insurance against accident for workingmen, and Massachusetts has had since 1907 a plan whereby the savings banks act as agents for mutual insurance. But both systems are quite a different matter from State life insurance, in which Wisconsin stands alone. If the experiment is to be tried, Wisconsin is probably the right State to lead, for its people are bold and eager in legislative initiative.

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE

One of the most famous of English naturalists, Alfred Russel Wallace, died on November 7, at the great age of ninety-one years. When one reads that his journey to the Amazon, the record of which brought him reputation and honor, covered the years from 1848 to 1852, one realizes the duration of his career. A little later he spent eight years in the Malay Islands, and it was there that he first formulated to his own mind the theory of Natural Selection which Charles Darwin was simultaneously evolving. Even as early as 1855 he wrote an article which foreshadowed the theory. Of Darwin Mr. Wallace said: "He was too great a man, too earnest a seeker after truth, to feel the slightest jealousy of any other worker in the field which he himself cultivated." Wallace's best-known works, apart from his "Darwinism," published in 1889, are "Travels on the Amazon," "The Malay Archipelago," and "The Geographical Distribution of Animals."

In his later years Wallace was accused of "faddism" because of his opposition to compulsory vaccination and some other views on social and philosophical topics. His early life was varied and picturesque, and he went through many adventures and dangers at sea and in the wilds. An account of his services to science and a discussion of his place among the great naturalists and scientific theorists must be deferred.

EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER

The death last week at St. Paul of Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller followed only a few weeks after she had received from many parts of the country recognition, in connection with her eightieth birthday, of a long life of usefulness and helpfulness.

She was one of the earliest of American women to be graduated from college, and she began soon after to write for children. As the editor of the "Little Corporal," as a frequent contributor to "St. Nicholas," with which the earlier juvenile magazine was, we believe, incorporated, as the editor for a number of years of a Sunday-school department in the "Christian Union" (now The Outlook), and as a writer of cheerful fiction and verse, Mrs. Miller was always simple and clear in expression, gentle and yet convincing in exposition, and free from that excessive pietism which marred much of American religious juvenile literature.

As late as the early part of the present year a poem by her called "The Song of To-Morrow" appeared in The Outlook, and its optimism and hopefulness were characteristic of the author and her attitude toward life.

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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ELECTIONS

I—A CITY THAT IS FINDING ITSELF

In the utter rout of Tammany in New York City is to be found the most significant as well as the most cheering result of the elections last week. Although this is supposed to be an "off year" in politics, since there is no general election, the voters of New York City had a duty to perform in selecting the chief officers of their city government hardly less important than that which is laid upon them in Presidential years. Indeed, so far as the immediate material welfare of thousands and hundreds of thousands of people in the largest city of the hemisphere is concerned, even a Presidential election could hardly have the effect of this great municipal election. Compared with it the election of a Governor of any State, New York included, is of secondary interest. It has been said that the man who is Mayor of New York holds the second highest executive office in the United States. It is certainly hardly doubtful that the executive power wielded by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, of which the Mayor is the chief member, affects more directly the lives of a multitude of people than that wielded by any other authority outside of the control of the Federal Executive. In this consideration, therefore, of the significance of the elections, the result in New York comes first.

For many years New York has been a place of industry and habitation, rather than a city. In early days, of course, it was indeed a city with a distinct community life and community character. That character it long ago lost. The steamship, the railway, the factory with its machinery, transformed it. What has happened to other cities during the period of industrial revolution has happened to New York—but in greater degree. It almost ceased to be a city in becoming a great center of population. People came to New York to make a living, not to live. They came to New York to make money, not a home. Within the limits of the city is a population surpassed in numbers by only one other city in the world, and equaled by no other city in the world in diversity of character. It is a great conglomeration of people.

Such a place as that inspires in the great mass of its population no patriotism. The Greeks who live in New York have shown that they are willing to die for Greece; there is no indication that they would be willing to die for New York. There are not many Americans in New York who would be any more willing to die for New York, though there is every reason to believe that when need arises they would be ready to die for America. The people of New York do not think of New York as the Southerner thinks of his State, or as the New Englander thinks of New England. They think of it as a place in which they can make their way and in which they can find employment; but, with few exceptions among the older residents, they have no love for it. The reason is plain. New York has not been to them a home.

In place of loyalty to their State there has grown up in the hearts of a great mass of people in New York another loyalty. These people have found the city an impersonal thing; but they have found the district leader and the ward boss very human. The little favors that they have received at the hand of the man who represents Tammany Hall in their neighborhood, the occasional job that has gone from the Tammany leader to the man out of work, the outings and the picnics that have sometimes refreshed women and children and have provided boisterous amusement to men, the chance for "easy money" to those of easy conscience, the opportunities for engaging in stirring fights that have been afforded to the fellows of red blood and primitive instincts, the openings made for activity on the part of the depraved and reckless—all these have helped to create a sense of loyalty that has taken the place of patriotism, and has put Tammany Hall, a pseudo-philanthropic, semi-political, wholly commercial secret society, in that place in the hearts of a multitude which ought to be occupied by the city, the State, and the Nation.

This secret society, which has supplanted the city in the affections of a multitude of people, does not, however, exist for the sake of the people. It exists for the sake of those who by means of its organization have attained to power. It exists, not for the many, but for the few. In one respect this secret society is democratic. Those who have attained to power in it have come in many instances, perhaps in most instances, from the ranks. No one is barred from power in Tammany for lack of birth or breeding. But most, if not all, of those who have attained to power have risen by treading

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on their fellows. The one requisite for leadership in Tammany is ability to use the loyalty of the people as a means for self-aggrandizement. There is no concealment of this fact in those who have arrived. The dictum of Mr. Richard Croker, former chieftain of Tammany Hall, that he was working for his own pocket all the time, the same as everybody else, was one which could not very well be uttered by a subordinate; for it was too frank an acknowledgment of the principle on which Tammany Hall is based to be safe in the mouth of any but one whose object had virtually been already attained. This is Tammany Hall, a product of loyalty perverted for the securing of special privilege.

So the city grew—a city without a loyal people, a city in which a part has been greater than the whole.

During all these years, however, there have been people in New York who were loyal to New York. The city has grown so fast, its people have been so busied with the task laid upon it by the industrial forces of the world, that at first these loyal people seemed like dreamers and visionaries. They have, however, kept the faith. And whenever Tammany grew outrageously corrupt and became brazen about its corruption, as it did in the days of Tweed, these loyal people have been leaders of a good fight against Tammany, and have won occasional battles. Each time victory against Tammany has been followed by a period of indifference, and then by defeat. Each time, nevertheless, some gain has been registered. Among those who have fought for the city there has been at times not enough cohesive power to bring about union; and when there has been union there has, as a rule, been but one common idea—enmity to Tammany. It has been, through all these years, an uncertain conflict, successful only when Tammany became careless through arrogance.

With the lengthening of the term of office of the executive officers of the city from two to four years, there came new advantage to the victor in each contest. Four years ago the anti-Tammany forces were successful. During these past four years there has been a chance for those who were loyal to the city to find a common ground in something else besides mere opposition to Tammany. During these four years, too, the people have been learning about their city more than they had learned in the same length of time before. The mothers in the tenements, for instance, have been learning that they need no longer look to the district leader for the little favors that will bring refreshment to their children, for they have found that they will be able to procure, not as a favor but as a right, good milk for their babies, and fresh air in the parks by the ocean's side, and some chance for a better environment in their homes. There has been, as a result of what has already been done, a great decrease in the death rate among young children. So throughout the city there has been growing during these four years a feeling on the part of the people that the city itself might be made a guardian of their rights and a promoter of their real welfare.

Thus it happens that when the question arose this year as to the government of the city for the next four years there was a better chance than ever before for those who were loyal to the city to unite on something besides merely a common enmity to a secret society. In spite of the fact that influences ostensibly opposed to Tammany were at work to cause jealousy and disruption, these loyal citizens of New York did unite and formed a common platform. More significant in the history of the city than the nominations they made was the fact that they agreed on a definite and far-reaching programme of the sort that will, when carried out, make the city the sort of city that will inspire loyalty. Those who, in the name of the anti-Tammany cause, are twitting this party or that for failure to get one office or another are more subtle and evil-minded enemies of the city than even the open supporters of Tammany, and, correspondingly, those who were influential in bringing about this union on a common programme have rendered the city the greatest of all services.

The election, then, of Mr. Mitchel, Mr. McAneny, Mr. Prendergast, and the other nominees on the Fusion ticket, is thus a triumph of something more than good government, something more than a reward for efficient administration; it is the greatest advance that New York has made in its process of finding itself, of really becoming a city. It is this uniting on a common platform to make the city a real city, rather than the mere revelations of iniquity, that brought the victory to the Fusion forces. There has been an over-emphasis on the part that these revelations played in the campaign. What

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Mr. Hennessy, and in perhaps less degree Mr. Sulzer, did was to serve as the fife and drum corps of the Fusion army, to keep up the fighting spirit of the Fusion forces. It was not, however, the fact that they were fighting against something, but the fact that they were fighting for something, that brought those forces the victory.

That there was this positive aim and purpose in the campaign was due to men who have been sneered at as amateurs in politics. The Fusion victory in New York is a vindication of these amateurs and a demonstration that they knew their business. It was also a triumph for those who believe in the ability of the American people to govern themselves, who believe that if it can be made plain that there is an issue of right and wrong, of justice against injustice, of common welfare against corruption, the people of even so conglomerate a city as New York will ultimately decide right.

For the future the duty of New Yorkers is plain. It is not merely to oust Murphy—indeed, it is doubtful whether Mr. Murphy's successor would be any improvement; it is certainly not merely to destroy Tammany, for, given the same conditions, another Tammany would arise to take the old Tammany's place. It is, first, to take away from the mere politician the political instruments which he has used for self-aggrandizement and give them to the people by the enactment of laws for the simplified ballot, for real direct nominations, and the like; but still more fundamentally it is to support every undertaking to make the city itself the instrument of the people's own effort for common welfare, and thus to make it the object of the people's loyalty.

This means the vast increase of the scope of municipal activity. It means more parks and playgrounds, it means municipal milk depots, it means the municipal operation of some public utilities, and may mean the municipal operation of others; it means an extended regulation of the ordinary affairs of city life. This is not paternalism. When all the people do these things for their common good, it is fraternalism. It is by making the city a home that the people make it a city.

II—THE ELECTIONS AT LARGE

For a decade there has been evident in the American people a growing impatience of party restraint. The elections of last week afforded new evidence in demonstration of this fact. The independent voter is still independent.

This is the more significant inasmuch as the conditions created during the Presidential campaign last year were such as to give new value to party divisions. Many thousands of voters who found no satisfaction permanently in either the Democratic or Republican party found last year for the first time a party which expressed in organized form the convictions that they had individually held. In this sense the Progressive party proved itself to be in a special degree the party of the independent voter. Unquestionably, too, many voters of independent habit were strongly attracted to the Democratic party by the candidacy of Mr. Wilson. Furthermore, the very circumstances that led to the formation of the Progressive party made many Republicans who had at times been inclined to independence more than ever before partisan. Thus in one way or another the independent vote seems to be attracted to one or another of the parties.

The elections this fall, however, do not indicate that this independent vote has been absorbed permanently.

There is still uncertainty in the minds of a great many voters as to the character of the several parties as now organized. In New Jersey, for example, all three parties claimed to be progressive. Circumstances there made it difficult for many voters to decide which party was the most effectually progressive. Mr. Colby, the nominee of the Progressive party, was regarded as a conservative Progressive. Mr. Stokes, the candidate of the Republicans, made a bid for votes on the ground that he had voted last year for the Presidential ticket of the Progressive party. And Mr. Fielder, the nominee of the Democrats, was regarded as so progressive a Democrat, and so distinctively the heir of the Wilson Administration, that he undoubtedly suffered somewhat from the anti-Wilson machine men. Mr. Fielder's election may be taken as a fair indication of the general attitude of the country: sympathy with progressive tendencies and a suspension of judgment, somewhat mitigated by mild approval, concerning the effectiveness of the Wilson Administration. The Democratic party is still a minority party, though it has succeeded to power by pluralities. There is no indication anywhere of any serious change of opinion from that recorded a year ago.

The revulsion of feeling in New York

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cannot be regarded as an exception, for it is a revulsion against the Democratic party, not as a National organization, but as a State machine under Tammany domination. The election of two conservative judges to the Court of Appeals of New York is indicative of the conservative character of the New York electorate, but is not to be regarded as an expression of satisfaction with the general attitude of the courts of New York with reference to the great social questions. The old habit of swinging toward one boss in order to swing away from the other is not easily changed. The fact, however, that between thirty and forty candidates were elected to the Assembly who showed their independence of machine rule by accepting either a nomination or an indorsement from the Progressives, and that a majority of the candidates elected have, it is understood, pronounced in favor of direct nominations, indicates that in a conservative way New York State is trying to escape from some of the worst effects of boss rule.

The results of the election in Pennsylvania, more particularly in Philadelphia, constitute some of the darker shadows of the picture.

As far as the fortunes of the three principal parties are concerned nothing can safely be predicted on the basis of the votes recorded last week throughout the country. All three parties had reason to look forward to these elections with some concern : the Democratic party, because these elections were the first to be held after Mr. Wilson's inauguration and might prove to be not as encouraging as it would like to have them ; the Progressive party, because the new party would not have the advantage of the excitement of the Presidential campaign, and would be sure to feel the disadvantage that is always felt by a new organization ; the Republican party, because the Republican diagnosis of last year's defeat as a merely temporary indisposition might not be confirmed. The worst fears of none of the parties was fulfilled. Apparently the happiest lot fell to the Democrats, but the wiser leaders of that party will not make the mistake of interpreting such victories as they have won through meeting a divided opposition as a general popular indorsement.

Whatever party fortunes may be, however, the elections show that the stand-patter is not in favor, and that progressive principles in one form or another have found favor in the minds of the people.

FIVE NEW NOVELS BY WOMEN

If the future historian of the first decades of the twentieth century turns from the files of its newspapers to its more serious fiction, he will find the disturbance of long-established values reported with greater calmness but with no lessening of interest. If he searches for some record of its lighter moods, he may find it in Mr. Locke, in Mr. Howells's earlier stories, in Mrs. Deland's delightful studies of village life, in Mr. Fox's sympathetic reports of the Kentucky mountaineers ; he will look in vain for any relaxation of mood or ease of spirit in many of the stories which appeal to great numbers of readers. For a generation the Russian novelists have been describing social and political conditions with tragic power ; Zola, a novelist of tremendous energy but of rudimentary art instinct and wholly without the sense of reticence, pictured certain social conditions in Paris with unflinching realism ; and Dickens, Kingsley, George Eliot, Collins, Mrs. Ward, have kept fiction in touch with the experience of the time.

The Russians felt the appeal of restless masses of people hushed into silence by the iron hand of irresponsible power ; Dickens was moved to dramatize the injustice of legal delays, the abuse of children, the neglect of the poor ; but the significance of certain American novels lies in their reflection of National conditions and their response to the deep stirrings of the spirit of a whole people. The foreign novelists of serious temper have been moved by local conditions, by individual cases, by personal injustices ; the American novelist of serious purpose reflects not so much dissatisfaction with conditions in localities or in trades as a general sense of injustice towards a great section of society and a deepening feeling of responsibility for conditions that society can no longer accept as just and Christian. The earlier novelists moved in advance and called attention to reforms that were needed ; the American novelist of to-day is not so much a leader as a reporter of the mind of those for whom he writes.

" The Inside of the Cup " and " V. V.'s Eyes " have been commented upon in these columns, and their curiously different approaches to the problems of industrial and social justice pointed out ; they are both significant of a restless feeling as regards existing

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conditions which is sometimes temperamental and sterile but oftener full of significance for thoughtful people. Mr. Churchill's novel just named and Miss Mary Johnston's "Hagar" (Houghton Mifflin Company) are revolutionary stories of personal experience. The first deals with the intellectual and moral changes through which a man passes from a faith which he has accepted on tradition to a faith which he has achieved, from acceptance of an existing industrial order to one which meets the demands of his creed as a Christian; many who do not follow Mr. Churchill's Hodder in his mental processes and who find the novel open to serious criticism as a piece of literature find it deeply interesting as a chapter of contemporary history.

Miss Johnston's story takes a woman through similar experiences, and, while many readers will dissent from some of its conclusions and will find in it too many of the qualities of a tract, there will be few to deny its ability or its significance. It is a report of the revolution now going on in society as it took possession of a woman and transformed her life. The transition from the old to the new has been dramatized in extreme terms, for "Hagar" starts in an old-time Southern home ruled by the most rigid conventions, and ends in the ranks of those who not only accept suffrage but have emancipated themselves from most of the old conventions. "Hagar" is more than a "feminist" novel; it is a revolutionary novel, though Hagar, in striving for complete individuality, holds fast the old standards of personal dignity and moral stability.

Hagar is, in fact, too steadily and intensely in earnest; she breathes too constantly the air of a reform movement. This means that the story is overloaded and lacks the large, free movement of the novels which report not the struggles of an hour but the conflicts which are part of every human experience.

One gets away from moral struggle but not from moral conditions when he opens Mrs. Wharton's "Custom of the Country" (Scribners); a social study at once mercilessly penetrating and pitilessly just. Starting in Apex City and ending in Paris, it is a searching study of the pretty, hard, ambitious American girl who has no morality but a relentless and very practical determination to "arrive" socially. Born in the crudest conditions of a frontier town, without education, but with a superficial brightness and the faculty of quick discernment not of real differences of social ideals but of differences of social rank, she soon learns in New York that money and residence in an expensive hotel do not open the doors to the circles to which she aspires. Marriage into a New York family of old traditions secures access to the inner circle, but her hardness and innate vulgarity make the old-fashioned refinement and dignity irksome; she is, at heart, incapable of understanding even rudimentary family morality or idealism. Mrs. Wharton is entirely at home in suggesting those differences between the social thoroughbred and the imitation which many novelists fail to report through lack of experience.

Mrs. Wharton's study of the heartless, cold-blooded American "climber" is so merciless that one feels as if the Furies were on her trail. They are, but she never hears the clang of the iron wings; that is the tragedy of it. As a picture of the cheap, over-dressed and underbred women produced by the gross prosperity of recent years this story has more than passing interest. Undine Spragg has more taste and is less noisily vulgar than most of her kind; but there is nothing womanly about her; she lacks even the maternal instinct. She sins not through warmth of nature but as a measure of cool calculation. She is, in fact, a far greater sinner than the passionate woman of fiction, but she is careful of her reputation; she takes the trouble to go through the divorce courts because, in her ignorance, she believes that a succession of divorces preserves a woman's respectability. She is the type of heartless, passionless woman so admirably drawn in Judge Grant's "Unleavened Bread," a type which Frenchwomen who see such women living luxuriously in Parisian hotels are unable to understand. She bears the same relation to a real woman that a yellow journal bears to a real newspaper.

Less searching but perhaps more enjoyable is Mrs. Watts's "Van Cleve" (Macmillan). So easy and friendly is the manner of approach that the reader finds himself led, almost unconsciously and before he knows it, into intimacy with a group of characters. Each of these is distinct; each is intensely human, either in good qualities or in foibles and weaknesses clearly marked; and each is free from either the angelic or diabolic. Van himself is not heroic or emotional, but steadfast, reticent, with his mind close to business, tolerant of others' faults, ready to bear burdens and make no fuss about it, faithful in love and friendship.

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His fickle-minded women relatives and their kinsman the preposterous Colonel, with his lies and brag, wander uneasily from place to place all over the land, and look to Van to pull them out of difficulties. When the lovable, dissipated brother of the girl Van loves must be hunted up in Cuba (a capital reminiscential view of the Spanish War is included in the tale), Van goes as a matter of course. That the girl's lover should prove bad and faithless and yet be idealized by her after he dies in the war is part of Van's accepted lot. The agreeable inebriate brother in the end exposes, when dying, the evil deeds of the idolized war hero, whose sins that inebriate has allowed to rest on his own shoulders; and one may hope, though one is not definitely told, that Van in time is rewarded for his patience and devotion. Mrs. Watts has a familiar, cheerful way of taking her readers into her confidence, and she so avoids the sins of "fine writing" and melodramatic effects that her art is as easy as it is subtle. The humor is quiet, but pervading and persuasive. Altogether the book is in ripeness and mellowness the best of the three excellent novels which Mrs. Watts has to her credit, and it may be added that all three are entitled to a place of honor in American fiction of this century.

It is always agreeable to meet in Mrs. Humphry Ward's novels the good manners and cultured diction of the English men and women who move leisurely through those stories. "The Coryston Family" (Harpers) has dignity and a strong situation, although the final chapters are not altogether conclusive or well knit together. Lady Coryston herself, as has been pointed out by more than one critic, has something of the majestic masterfulness of Queen Elizabeth and something of the family dictatorship of Mrs. Deland's "Iron Woman." Her attempt to make her sons follow her despotic political leadership despite love or conviction results as might be predicted. The lesson of her failure is that individual responsibility must prevail and that where one cannot lead one must tolerate. It need not be said that the book is well written or that it touches social movements and modern conditions with a sure hand—so much is always to be counted on in Mrs. Ward's fiction work.

Mrs. Burnett in "T. Tembarom" (the Century Company) lets herself go, so to speak, in the matter of probabilities. The reader does not care, however; for if the fairy-story-like suddenness with which the raw but big-hearted New York reporter is jumped into the possession of a great English estate and an income of $350,000 a year makes one smile, it is incontestable that Mrs. Burnett is a born teller of tales. "T. Tembarom" is the reporter in question; and he is such a mighty good fellow, so amazing and amusing an adept in American slang, so devoted a lover to so fine and helpful a girl as his "Little Ann," so glad to get rid of his riches and live in a Harlem flat when the real heir is found by himself, that one lays down the story delighted and eager to read another from the same pen.

Here, then, are five recent novels, all written by women, which in most diverging ways show marked ability and wide appeal.

INDUSTRIAL WRONGS AND REMEDIES

A LETTER TO AN UNKNOWN FRIEND

I should be very sorry to have you conclude from my letter in The Outlook for August 23 that I do not think there is any injustice in the present industrial situation, or that whatever injustice exists is incidental and unavoidable, and that nothing can be done to remedy it. Ever since I became an associate editor with Mr. Beecher of "The Christian Union" thirty-five years ago I have been urging by voice and pen, in the pulpit, on the lecture platform, and in the press, industrial reform because of the injustice in the present industrial conditions. Practically all *thinking* people recognize the existence of such injustice; they differ as to the proper remedy.

In modern civilized states the great industries on which the well-being of the community depends are carried on by great organizations. In these highly organized industries a few men own the tools by which the industries are carried on—the factories, the railways, the mines. These tool-owners are called capitalists. The many carry on the work with these tools. These tool-users are called workingmen. The tool-owners, or capitalists, assume the entire direction of the industry and the entire responsibility for it. They bear the losses if there are losses; they take the profits if there are profits. But—and the exception is very important—if the business is carried on at a loss, they either discharge the workingmen or lower their

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wages; and if the profits seem to the workingmen very great, the workingmen demand an increase in their wages.

There is much injustice incidental to, if not inherent in, this industrial system. One phase of this injustice, not merely to the workingmen but to society, you have stated very clearly in your letter, as follows:

> There exists now a class—the capitalist class—that does not even longer "supervise labor," a function for which it unfairly compensated itself. Ceasing even to "supervise labor," its function now is solely to exploit labor. There is no *inter*-dependence between that class and the workers. The capitalist class no longer creates capital, but it continues to accumulate capital, accumulating it through another "division of labor" by putting management, risk, supervision, and all upon a new class of wage-workers—foremen, superintendents, and technical experts.

For the injustice thus clearly stated many remedies are proposed. They may all be included in three groups of remedy.

Some assume that these two classes, capitalists and workingmen, must always exist; that always, and of necessity, a few must own the tools of organized industry and the many must carry on the industry with these tools, and they propose to secure justice by establishing better relations between them. In this they trust partly to the moral development of the race—to inspiring the capitalist with a sincere desire to treat the workingman with justice and consideration, and inspiring the workingman to do his work with fidelity and efficiency; and partly to organizing the workingmen into industrial combinations, as the capitalists are organized into capitalistic organizations, in order that the two classes may be able to bargain with each other on something like equal terms. This remedy we may call Trade-Unionism.

Some propose that the political organization—the city, the State, or the Nation—shall acquire possession of all the tools of organized industry and become the one employer of labor. The political organization would thus become the only capitalist, would direct the industries, pay the wages, and divide the profits among the people, or carry on the business without any profits, sharing the benefits of the industry between the workingmen and the general community. The political organization would thus own and carry on all the factories, mines, railways, etc., as the city now owns and carries on the water-works and as the Nation now owns and carries on the post-office. This remedy we may call Political Socialism or State Socialism.

Some believe with these Political Socialists that the present distinction between the capitalistic class and the working class is to be abolished; but they believe this is to be done, not by making the State the capitalist and the citizen the workingman, but by making all workingmen capitalists and all capitalists workingmen. They look forward to the time when there will be such an equable division of wealth that every man of temperate and industrious habits and of intelligence will be able to become a part owner of the great industries, and the profits of the industries will be so divided that no man can live idly on the industry of others, but all must share in the work of production. This remedy we may call Industrial Democracy.

I am an industrial democrat. I do not believe in the permanent organization of society into two classes—employers and employed, or capitalists and workingmen, or tool-owners and tool-users; not only because this works industrial injustice and promotes industrial warfare, but because, however regulated, it seems to me essentially inconsistent with the realization of the brotherhood of man. I do not believe in Political or State Socialism, because I believe that to make the State one great capitalist and all citizens its employees would be fatal to both political and industrial liberty. I do believe in such a division of the products of industry and the natural resources of the Nation that, on the one hand, all men will have to labor with hand or brain or both for the common welfare, and, on the other hand, every industrious, thrifty, and temperate laborer will receive a fair share in the products which his industry helps to produce. And I believe that this condition is to be brought about, not by any labor wars, nor by any sudden revolution, but by a gradual intellectual, moral, and industrial development, which it should be the object of the people, and especially of legislators, educators, and reformers, to bring about.

For this reason I believe:

The Nation should retain its ownership and control of the great resources which now belong to the Nation—oil lands, coal lands, mineral lands, and water powers—and should allow them to be operated only under lease and subject to such regulations as the Government may prescribe. The only exception would be agricultural lands; and they should be given, in the future as in the

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past, only in small holdings and to men who will live on and cultivate the farm.

The State should levy such a tax on all natural resources as will constitute a fair rental value and give to the men who are bringing these resources to the market and making them available to the people only a fair compensation for their industry.

There should be such a graduated inheritance tax, State or National, as will prevent one generation from being supported in idleness by the generation which preceded.

The income tax should have been levied on incomes derived from investments, not on incomes derived from industry. As there are comparatively few incomes of over four thousand dollars derived from industry alone, I favor the exemption clauses in the present income tax law, as an indirect method of securing the same result—that is, taxation on capital, not on industry.

The State should provide a broader education, and specifically more industrial education, so that those who are expecting to give their lives to the forms of industry which produce material wealth may be better equipped for that purpose and work more under the direction of their own brains because they do not need so much the direction of the brains of others. I agree with Abraham Lincoln: "Free labor argues that as the Author of man makes every individual with one head and one pair of hands, it was probably intended that heads and hands should co-operate as friends, and that that particular head should direct and control that pair of hands."

Movements for shortening the hours of labor, improving the conditions of labor, increasing the wages of labor, and putting upon enterprise the risks and damages incident to labor should be encouraged; and especially those who now direct and control the great enterprises should, as far and as fast as possible, continue and put in operation, as they are beginning to do, plans for giving to the laborer a share in the profits.

Organizations both of labor and of capital should, on the one hand, be brought under the supervision and control of Government, and, on the other hand, encouraged, not discouraged, with a view to promoting that partnership on equal terms between the two classes which will tend eventually to merge the two classes and abolish the artificial distinction between them.

You will not expect in a letter like this a complete industrial programme. If this partial programme interests you, you will find a fuller statement of what I deem to be the principles of Industrial Democracy in a volume entitled "The Industrial Problem," published by G. W. Jacobs & Co. in 1905.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

REST IN ACTION

It is one of the signs of our immortality that we so quickly accept new achievements as a matter of course, and, while we make use of them, we never rest in them, but immediately put our hands to some new task: no sooner do we reach some point toward which we have traveled long and painfully, than we gird up our loins and set out again on the journey. The real measure of the gains we have made is the vigor of impulse it imparts for still greater gains. Now and again there come a few years of comparative stagnation, for after some tremendous putting forth of energy or some deep and moving experience there often comes to society, as to individuals, a mood of lassitude. The human spirit cannot bear a continuous strain without exhaustion; it cannot keep the pace of a great onward movement without occasional pauses for rest; and so, to recall Matthew Arnold, the age of expansion is often followed by the age of concentration, or at least of arrested motion.

If we were the creatures of the great forces that flow through society, the puppets of a power which drives us on to ends not of our choosing, there would be no need for rest; the world might spin forever, without pause or rest, "down the ringing grooves of change." But while external influences of many kinds play upon us and enter into our lives to modify them and give them color, the outward movements which make what we call history are expressions of the inward life of men, and are great and noble or weak and mean as the spirit which they express is strong in faith and noble in the ends it seeks, or is weary, timid, or selfish. And because there is this vital relation between the spirit of man and the institutions he is fashioning and the social and political ends he is seeking, that spirit must take time after great changes to adjust itself to those changes and to take into its thought the new truths that have been revealed. We are always setting forces at work either as a result of deliberate thinking or of some instinct deep within us which gives us cour-

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age to act even when we do not see the road we are to pursue clearly marked out before us; and when those forces have effected radical changes of conditions we must go through a period of readjustment and of rationalizing what has happened. Experience travels in advance of philosophy, and is overtaken by philosophy only when it has entered upon some new field or has taken possession of some new territory.

The outgoing of the human spirit in action is never really arrested; even in the ages that appear to be stagnant it is getting ready for a new putting forth of energy, precisely as nature in what appears to be the subsidence of life in winter is storing up the vital energy which is to bring the barren fields to another harvesting. The nations of the Far East have been regarded by many uninformed people as exhausted; as having made their contributions to civilization centuries ago, and as being now overtaken by the decrepitude of old age and henceforth to be governed by the younger races of the West. But to those who know conditions in the East no part of the world seems so intensely alive, so rich in the resources which give nations not only power but greatness. The East has never been dead; some Eastern peoples have been asleep, but are now awakening refreshed and ready to take the road to the future with fresh hope and unspent vitality. Japan has never been asleep; for three centuries she lived her intense life beyond the limits of Western observation.

There is nowhere in the world any rest in the sense of complete repose on a finished order of society; there is nowhere a complete social structure, a rounded and symmetrical civilization. No art, however perfect, has reached the end of its resources; religion has not yet touched the limits of truth or power. Repose is to be found not in inaction but in action; this is the law of the physical life, it is also the law of the intellectual, social, industrial life. Happiness comes not from love and peace inherited from the past, but from love and peace renewed daily. Wealth is derived not from investments already made, but from the daily earnings of integrity, industry, energy. We press forward for a prize not yet won, for a peace not yet wholly secured, for the happiness which is to crown a fuller growth of mind and heart.

THE ELECTIONS

A POLL OF THE PRESS

THE result of this year's elections is as follows, says the New York "Times" (Ind. Dem.):

UNITED STATES SENATOR ELECTED

Blair Lee, Dem., of Maryland.

CONGRESSMEN ELECTED

Maryland, Third District—G. P. Cody, Dem.
Massachusetts, Third District—C. D. Paige, Rep.
New York, Thirteenth District—George W. Loft, Dem.
New York, Twentieth District—Jacob A. Cantor, Dem.

GOVERNORS ELECTED

David I. Walsh, Dem., Massachusetts.
James F. Fielder, Dem., New Jersey.

MAYORS ELECTED

New York—John Purroy Mitchel, Fus.
Buffalo—Louis P. Fuhrmann, Dem.
Rochester—H. H. Edgerton, Rep.
Syracuse—Louis Will, Prog.
Albany—J. W. Stevens, Rep.
Troy—C. F. Burns, Dem.
Indianapolis—Joseph E. Bell, Dem.
Louisville—J. L. Buschmeyer, Dem.
Toledo—Carl Keller, Rep.
Columbus—A. B. Karb, Dem.
Cincinnati—F. S. Spiegel, Rep.
Cleveland—Newton D. Baker, Dem.
Pittsburgh—Joseph G. Armstrong, Rep.

OTHER MUNICIPAL RESULTS

Philadelphia—Organization Republicans elect District Attorney and other county officers.

NEW YORK CITY

One of these elections was, as the Chicago "Inter Ocean" (Rep.) says, "of great dramatic interest," and "held the attention of the entire country."

"The eyes of the Nation are upon New York City," says another Illinois paper, the Peoria "Herald-Transcript" (Rep.). To the advantage of Tammany, declares the Peoria paper, "it may be said that the Tiger has a splendid organization, intact and mechanically perfect." It fought "a conglomeration of reformers."

But the "conglomeration" won. It had

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won before the New York municipal campaign had been "embittered by the impeachment and ouster of Sulzer, and the deposed Governor's sensational attack on Charley Murphy, boss of Tammany Hall." The "Herald-Transcript" adds: "The shocking revelations made by Sulzer, although a prejudiced and discredited witness bent on revenge, are in harmony with the whole sinister history of Tammany."

Writing on the same subject, the editor of the Knoxville "Sentinel" (Dem.) remarks:

New York City's mayoralty campaign has excited the greatest interest. It is generally held to be second in importance only to the Presidential election. A more heated campaign cannot be recalled since the crushing of the Tweed ring. The most effective of the enemies of Tammany on the stump has been a former newspaper editor, Hennessy, whose investigations of graft in State politics were one of the occasions of the impeachment of Sulzer. His speeches have bristled with sensational charges, which Tammany does not seem to have met. Hennessy has succeeded in doing what few men can do, make a Tammany chief talk, and Charles F. Murphy has been one of the most silent of Tammany heads.

The result gratified "the wishes of the majority of the voters throughout the country," to quote from the Cedar Rapids "Gazette" (Ind.). Tammany was "snowed under," to use the Iowa paper's phrase. The vote itself is the expression of the capacity of the people of New York City for self-government, declares the New York "World" (Dem.).

That thousands of citizens, whatever their motives, should have been willing, for any reason, to vindicate Murphy and Tammany is a sorry commentary upon the public conscience of the greatest city in the world.

There can be no assurance of honest government in this community while Tammany exists and while Tammany is allowed to be the regular organization of the Democratic party. The destruction of Tammany is work for Democrats whose hands are unstained by graft or corruption or public plunder.

Tammany cannot be reformed. It must be destroyed!

A New York City paper—Democratic, so called, but also the organ of the Independence League—the "American," declares that the people of the city have won "a glorious victory for independence over servility and corruption." More than this, the people of New York City have vindicated government by the people, adds the "American." "They have proved the ability of the people to discriminate at least to an impressive extent. They have demonstrated the brain, wisdom, and courage that are latent in our democracy." The "American" adds:

They have emphatically announced that no man shall boss them, that no man shall sit around in the back room of a restaurant with half a dozen fawning confederates and dictate to them whom they shall choose to manage their business.

With remarkable discrimination, they have rebuked the handing over of any more of the great assets of their business—the business of this great metropolis—to interests which decade after decade have plundered and despised them, whether these interests be the Interborough conspiracy or any other of the corporate rings that have fattened at the public treasury.

The handwriting is on the wall. The doom of the boss system has been decreed.

The New York "Times" (Ind. Dem.) declares that not only should there be triumph because of the great vote cast for Mr. Mitchel, and because of his overwhelming plurality, but that there is equal reason for rejoicing in the triumph of Mr. McAneny and Mr. Prendergast, "against whom was arrayed the forces of the Independence League, the most selfish, impudent, and treacherous faction in our city politics." The "Times" adds:

It would have been monstrous, it would have been a calamity, it would have been the betrayal of all that is sound and honorable in popular government had these two men been struck down for no reason under heaven save that they had with great courage and ability conscientiously performed their full duty to the city.

In the Board of Estimate Tammany will encounter during the next four years the solid opposition of the Mayor with three votes, the President of the Borough of Manhattan with two votes, the President of Brooklyn Borough with two votes, the Presidents of the Boroughs of Bronx and of Richmond with one vote each, and the President of the Board of Aldermen and the Comptroller, each with three votes, a total of fifteen. The remaining vote will be cast by Mr. Connolly, President of Queens Borough, who, while not the Fusion candidate, is not at all a Tammany man.

STATE ELECTIONS

In Maryland a United States Senator was elected, and in Massachusetts, New York, and Maryland Congressmen were elected. In Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Virginia Governors were chosen.

MASSACHUSETTS

The most picturesque contest occurred in Massachusetts, for it was a four-handed contest. The Democratic and successful candidate was David I. Walsh, at present Lieutenant-Governor. The Progressive candidate

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was Charles S. Bird, a well-known manufacturer, who obtained second place in the result. The Republican candidate, who stood third, was Congressman Augustus Peabody Gardner. The fourth in the list, as to the number of votes polled, was Governor Foss.

As might have been expected, Governor Foss's campaign was especially interesting because of his position with regard to a particular issue. This was the tariff—and not only the tariff in general, but the Underwood Tariff in particular. Although a supposedly Democratic Governor, Mr. Foss did not hesitate to say, as reported:

The present tariff has not opened foreign markets to our workmen, it has not reduced the cost of raw materials and the necessities of life. The net cost to the American consumer remains as it was before the tariff became law.

Tariffs have been used in the past to foster monopolies. The present tariff is used to foster our foreign competitors. Where does the American workman come in?

Mr. Gardner's comparatively small vote is explained in part by the Boston "Transcript" (Rep.) on the ground of his refusal to retract any pledge made in the contest for the primaries. One of those pledges was with regard to anti-immigration, and this naturally told heavily against Mr. Gardner in a State whose population is largely foreign.

Mr. Bird's vote indicates, according to the Boston "Journal" (Prog.), that the Progressive party in Massachusetts "has no occasion to hang crape upon its banners. It means that the Progressive movement is a permanent force, not a passing flash of resentment. It means that the temporary assumption of 'progressivism' to meet the exigencies of a campaign will not deceive the people. It means that the future belongs to the Party of To-morrow, not to the Party of Yesterday."

Mr. Walsh, the successful candidate, elicits the following compliment from the same journal:

He has quietly, but energetically and skillfully, conducted his campaign. His speeches have been free from personalities. His appeals to the voters have been dignified and devoid of the arts of the spellbinder.

In a spectacular quadrilateral contest, which has so roused the interest of the electorate that the usual off-year declension in the vote did not occur, he has won in an open and honorable manner. The momentum of the Democratic National Administration helped him some, in spite of the scanty aid which came from Washington.

The Democratic party in Massachusetts, for the first time in more than half a century, will now find itself in control of all the State departments. The Boston "Transcript" (Rep.) thus explains:

A Democratic Governor will be surrounded by a Democratic Lieutenant-Governor and Democrats as Secretary of the Commonwealth, Treasurer, Auditor, and Attorney-General. This solidarity of Democratic control will be a temptation to enter upon a policy of mingled radicalism and reaction against which Governor Walsh must exert all his influence if he is to live up to his pledge to be chief magistrate not of his party but of all the people of the Commonwealth, who, without regard to party affiliations, are disposed to give him a fair trial.

NEW JERSEY

The campaign in New Jersey was of National interest because it is the President's own State, and because therefore it was expected that, if anywhere, the President's policies would be approved in that State; if disapproved, the blow to the Administration would be all the greater. Hence the success of James F. Fielder, who has been Acting Governor since Mr. Wilson became President, is due to this as the first reason, says the New York "Tribune" (Rep.). The paper gives three reasons for Mr. Fielder's victory:

One is that Jerseymen were proud to have a man from their State in the Presidency, and were therefore inclined to support his Administration at the polls and to elect his chosen candidate.

Another is that many Progressives, especially the partisans of Mr. Record in Hudson County, were more intent upon defeating the Republican candidate than upon electing their own, and therefore voted for Mr. Fielder as the surest way to defeat Mr. Stokes. A vote for Mr. Colby would have been only a half-vote against Mr. Stokes, while one for Mr. Fielder was a whole one.

The third is that in New Jersey the Democratic party, under Mr. Wilson and his successor, has been a party of progress and enlightenment. It has taken up some of the reforms which were proposed and begun by the last two Republican administrations, and with the cordial aid of the Republicans in the Legislature has advanced them toward completion.

In these circumstances a Democratic victory, though by a greatly decreased margin, was not surprising.

Naturally, most Democratic papers have made much of the victory in New Jersey. So do many independent papers—the Springfield "Republican," for instance. It says: "It was unmistakably the general popular loyalty to Mr. Wilson that enabled the Democratic candidate to win by some thirty thousand plurality, in spite of the heavy defection of machine Democrats in Essex County."

Mr. Fielder's opponents were ex-Governor

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Stokes for the Republicans and the Hon. Everett Colby for the Progressives. The Springfield paper notes that, whereas in Massachusetts Mr. Bird, a Progressive, ran second and Mr. Gardner, a Republican, third, in New Jersey the Republican ran second and the Progressive third, and thus comments on this apparent paradox:

> If a Progressive points to Mr. Bird's remarkable run in Massachusetts to prove that the Progressives are coming instead of going, a Republican can point to the quite as remarkable run of Mr. Stokes in New Jersey . . . to prove the contrary. . . . The country must await the Congressional and State elections in the fall of next year for more decisive developments.

A foremost New Jersey newspaper, the Newark "Evening News," however, thus cautions the Democrats regarding Mr. Fielder's victory:

> This is not a party victory, certainly not a party machine victory, in its State aspects. True, Fielder had the backing of a major part of his party, but he had the active opposition of another faction acting under the name of Democrats. Neither is it a majority victory. Fielder is in by a plurality only. The figures must be analyzed with the understanding that there were three major parties in the field.

VIRGINIA

The election in Virginia has called forth hardly any newspaper comment, as was natural when we remember that the Democratic State ticket had opposition from only the Socialist and the Socialist-Labor parties, with their estimated total of three thousand votes in the State. Although not more than half of the regular Democratic vote was brought out, the Democratic candidate for Governor, Henry C. Steward, was overwhelmingly elected. A despatch from Richmond to the New York "Times" (Ind. Dem.) says that the failure of the Republicans to enter a State ticket was due to the increasing Progressive sentiment among the Republicans of the State. "Had the Republicans named a ticket in opposition to the Democrats, the Progressives would also have come into the fight; and if the Progressives had received a larger total vote in the State than the old line Republicans, the Progressives would have come into greater power in the Commonwealth through the authority given to them to assist in the selection of the election machinery." The Charlottesville, Virginia, "Progress" (Dem.) says:

> It is good to be a Democrat in these piping days of great policies. The people have their victories far more renowned than those of the bosses. . . . Victory in 1910, victory supreme in 1912, and victory as a matter of habit in 1913!

MARYLAND

The Maryland Senatorial election was of importance, says the Baltimore "News" (Prog.), because "the Democratic organization has actually been behaving itself, and thereby giving the independents of the party little cause for revolt." The paper adds:

> Maryland is essentially a Democratic State. Undivided the party is practically invincible here. The organization has divided it again and again, and thereby furnished exciting campaigns. That this campaign has been a slow one is probably as strong a testimonial to the influence of the President as he could well receive thus early in his term.

MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS

Of the various municipal elections, aside from that in New York City, perhaps the most important was that in Philadelphia. In contrast to the victory for good government in New York City, the result in Philadelphia was, according to most newspaper authorities, disheartening. The Washington "Herald" (Ind.) says:

> The same influences which were annihilated in New York triumphed in Philadelphia, despite the almost united opposition of press and advocates of good government.
>
> Backed by the Oliver-Penrose State machine, the Vare-McNichol gang swept into power on the Republican ticket, defeating overwhelmingly the good government forces behind the Fusion ticket.
>
> Thus is repudiated the hard-won victory of two years ago, when Mayor Blankenburg was returned to power on a reform ticket in the hope that subsequent elections would record progress and ultimately give him a set of clean, graftless civic machinery. Blankenburg continues in office, but the Vare brothers, who can out-Murphy Charley himself on occasion, continue in control of the councils, the city treasury, and other offices.

The Philadelphia "Public Ledger" (Rep.) thus comments:

> The result as thus foreshadowed is a keen disappointment to all who have labored for the reform cause, for good government, and to strengthen the Blankenburg administration, but *the fight has just begun*. . . . The plain fact is that at the time this election was held "more voters were interested in having bad government than in getting good government." The people of Philadelphia showed by their act and non-action that, either from partisan prejudices or what they deemed to be their self-interest, they deliberately chose the evil path and followed it.
>
> The people of Philadelphia did this because their civic patriotism was either deficient or had not been quickened.

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Current Events Pictorially Treated

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MAYOR-ELECT MITCHEL, OF NEW YORK CITY, AND MRS. MITCHEL

See editorial pages for comment on the elections

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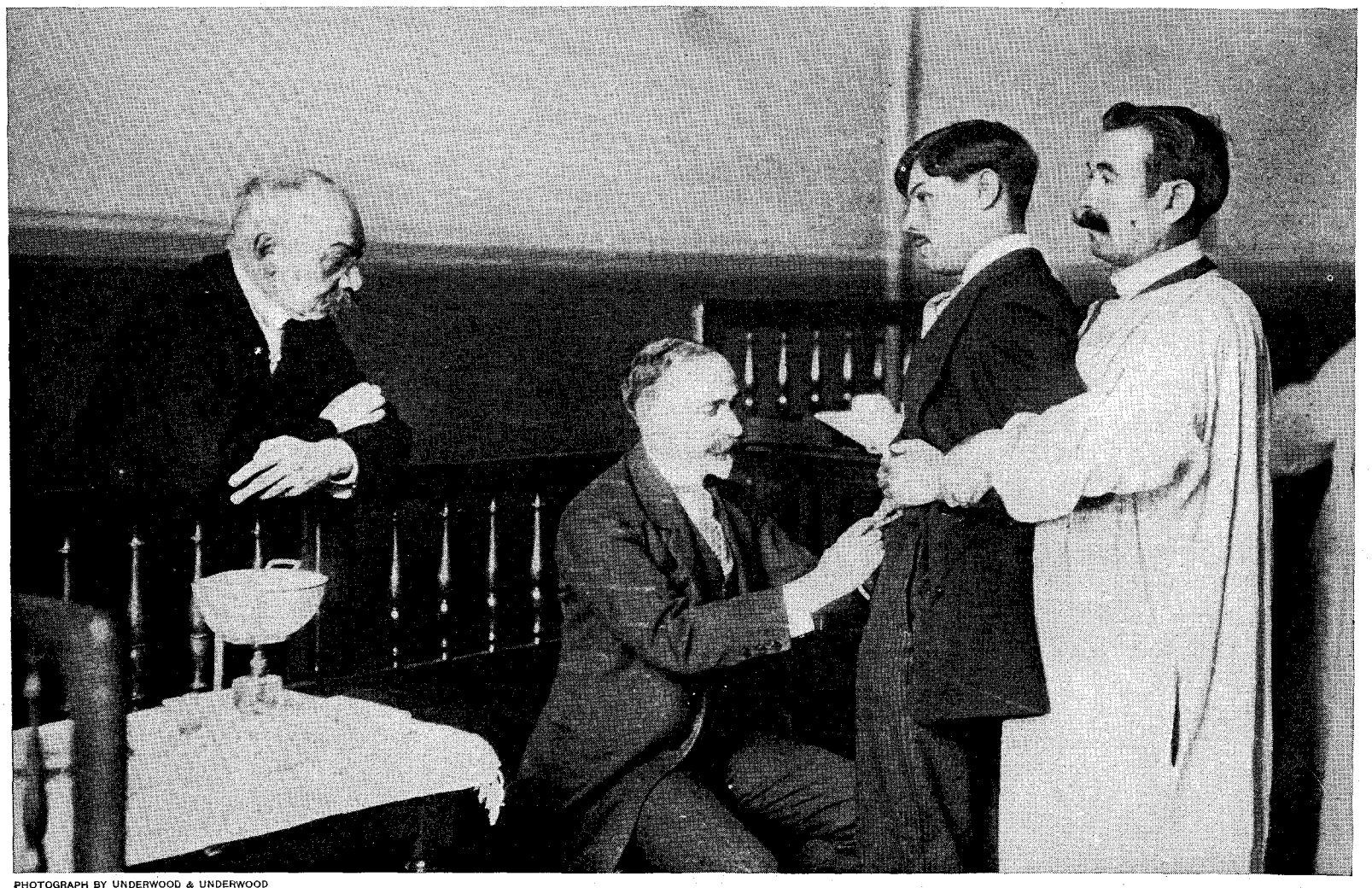

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INOCULATING A PATIENT IN THE PASTEUR INSTITUTE

The twenty-fifth anniversary of the Pasteur Institute of Paris is to be celebrated on November 18. See editorial pages

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GENERAL CARRANZA AND HIS TROOPS

The leader of the Constitutional Army (the elderly man with a beard) is seen seated by his brother, also a Revolutionary General. See editorial pages

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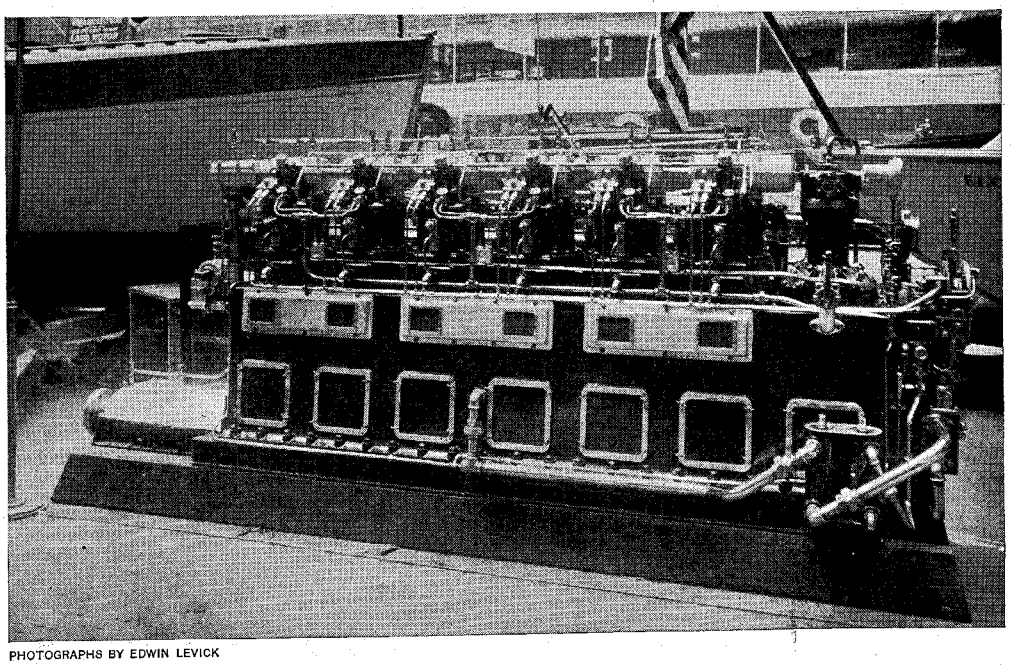

PHOTOGRAPHS BY EDWIN LEVICK

THE DIESEL ENGINE AND ITS INVENTOR

Dr. Diesel, the inventor of the epoch-making oil engine, recently disappeared from a Channel steamer

See an article elsewhere in this number

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GENERAL BRAMWELL BOOTH ON HIS ARRIVAL IN AMERICA

The new head of the Salvation Army is now visiting this country. See editorial pages

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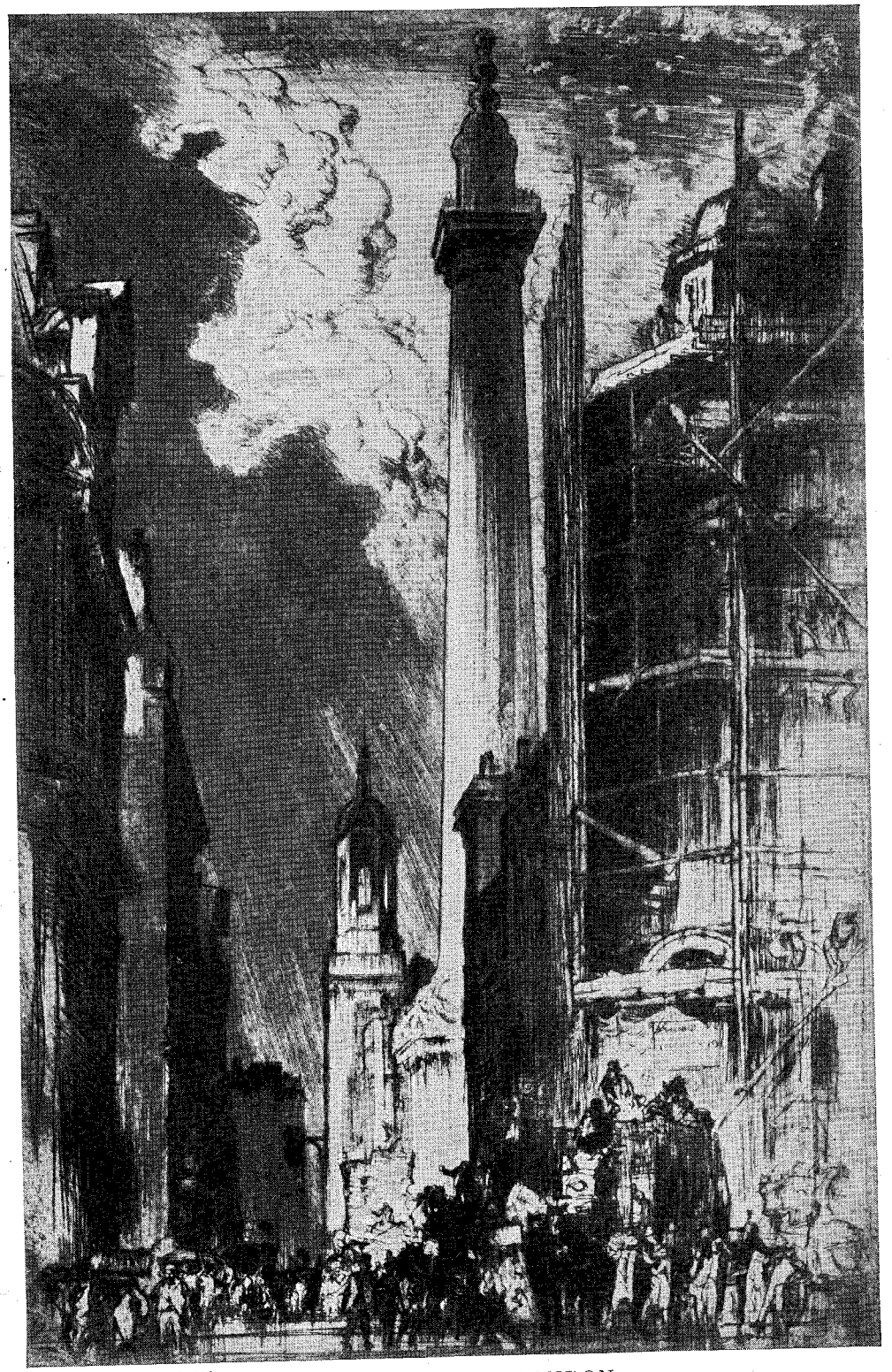

COURTESY OF C. W. KRAUSHAAR

THE MONUMENT, LONDON

One of Frank Brangwyn's recent etchings, in his new style, shown in the exhibition of his work lately held in New York City at the Kraushaar Galleries. The monument commemorates the Great Fire of 1666. See editorial comment

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Father (*angry*). "That appointment you *forgot* to keep to-day was the chance of a lifetime, and would probably have made your career. But you prefer to waste your time playing golf——"
Son (*hurt*). "Not *waste*, Father—I won this cruet."

He. "And—ah—when did you come out?"
Debutante. "Oh! but I was never in. I'm not a militant, you know."

TWO BITS OF SOCIAL SATIRE FROM "PUNCH"

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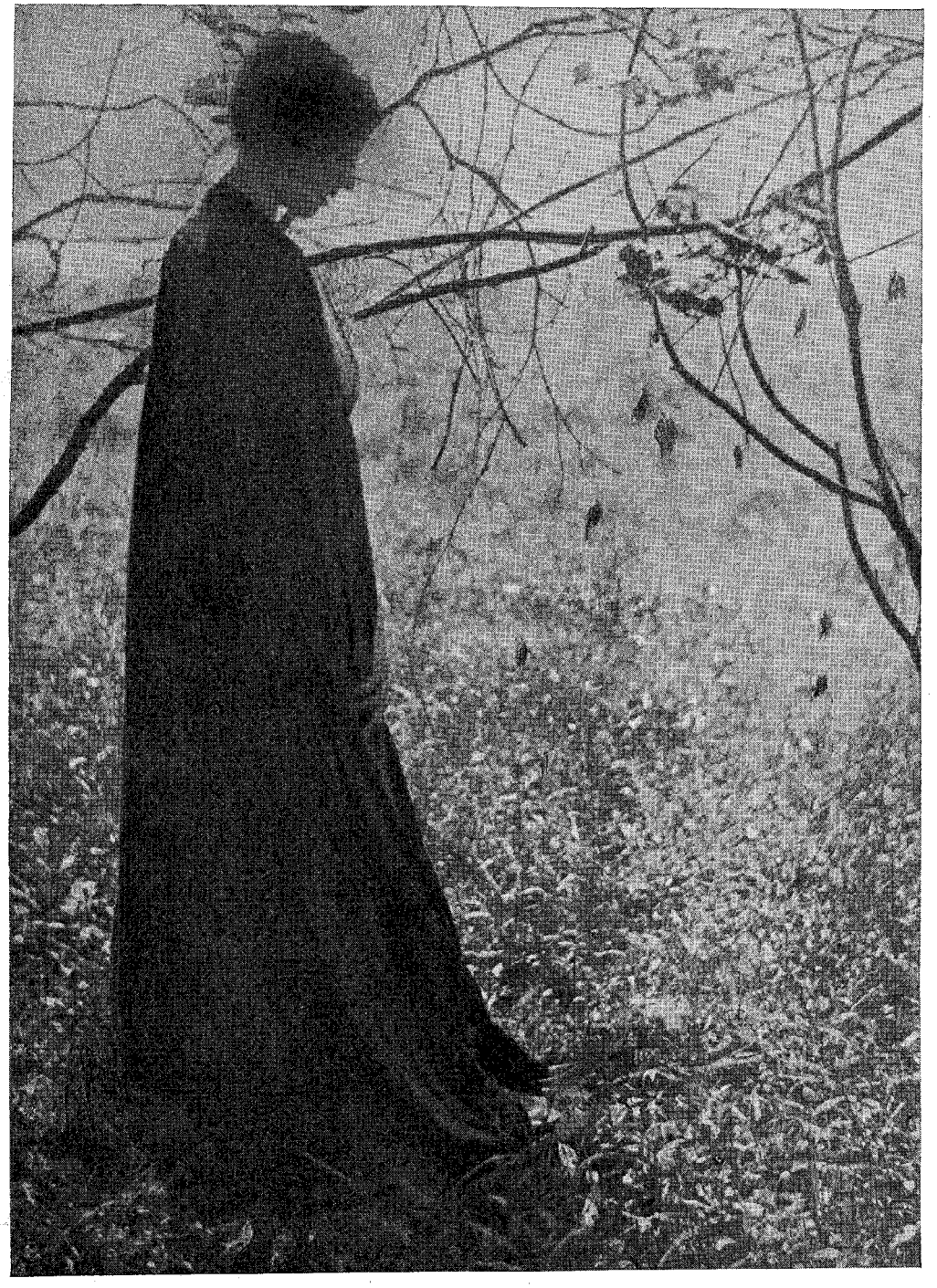

NOVEMBER

Photograph by Clarence White. Mr. White is one of the most prominent of the "advanced workers" in pictorial photography. He holds the position of instructor in photography in Columbia University, New York City, and in the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences

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RUDOLF DIESEL AND HIS WONDERFUL INVENTION[1]

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFFERT

IN the late seventies a young man whose name was Rudolf Diesel matriculated at the Munich Technical High School. The lectures that engrossed him most were those of Professor von Linde, a distinguished engineer, famous later as the inventor of very ingenious refrigerating machinery and of the only commercial method by which air is now liquefied in large quantities.

It is not difficult to imagine what Linde must have said during the course on thermodynamics. The same observations have been made over and over again in the lecture-rooms of technical schools on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean. Von Linde probably drew a gloomy picture of our wasteful methods of generating power. Coal must be shoveled into a furnace and burned in order to boil water and raise steam, and the steam in turn must be led through pipes to the cylinder of an engine. The whole process is wasteful, cumbrous, and costly. Out of all the stored energy in the coal only about thirteen per cent, under the very best conditions, is delivered in available form by the engine, and a yield of ten per cent is considered highly creditable. Despite all our vaunted ingenuity, this is the best that we can show with the steam engine after over a century of inventing. Nature's vast pumping engine works with a hundred per cent efficiency. The sun evaporates the water of ocean, lake, and river, collects it in clouds, pours it down in a torrent on mountain tops and plateaus, and thus feeds a Niagara. There are no boilers, no pistons, no cylinders, no rods.

After thus dwelling on the crudity of man-made motors, von Linde, no doubt, proceeded to describe the best engine that man can possibly construct; for an engineer, whatever his shortcomings may be, at least has his standards and knows exactly by how much he has failed to attain theoretical perfection. Then and there, Diesel tells us, he made a note of that ideal engine and resolved either to invent it or one that would not fall far short of it in efficiency.

Such resolutions are apt to evaporate after graduation. Diesel never forgot his. He became an assistant to von Linde, and later practiced as an engineer in Paris. Despite the demands of his profession, he still dreamed of his engine. Night after night he spent over a draughting-board, until at last—thirteen years after he had left the Munich Technical High School—he felt that he was ready to publish a description of an engine which embodied a revolutionary idea: the idea of compressing air so highly in a cylinder that when a little oil was injected it would ignite immediately and produce an enormous expansive effect. His engine was not built as yet. It existed only in his brain.

Most of the great inventions of the past have been evolved by men who were anything but trained scientists. Watt was an ingenious instrument-maker, Morse painted portraits, Bell taught deaf-mutes, Edison was a telegrapher, the Wright brothers were bicycle-makers. Without any disparagement, all of them may be termed brilliant, inspired, highly imaginative tinkers—men who worked chiefly by rule of thumb with ordinary tools in an ordinary shop. Diesel was of a different type—an academically trained engineer whose tools were not vises, chisels, and saws, but mathematical formulas and graphs, a scientist who carefully calculated the efficiency of his invention before it ever assumed shape in steel. Perhaps that accounts for the skepticism with which the first announcement of his engine was greeted—a book of his, published in 1893, entitled "Theory and Construction of a Rational Heat Motor."

"It's just a paper invention," said the "practical" engine-builders of that day. "It looks very well in the patent drawings, but when it's built he'll find the old steam engine cheaper, simpler, and more economical."

"Paper" invention though it was, two rich German firms, prodded no doubt by a few university professors who could grasp the full significance of efficiency curves, tables, and formulas, finally resolved to aid Diesel. They supplied him with all the money that he needed and placed at his

[1] A portrait of Rudolf Diesel appears in our picture section this week.—THE EDITORS.

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disposal the facilities of the finest machine-shops in Germany.

Diesel built his first engine in 1893. "It never ran at all," he told the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in a memorable lecture delivered early in 1912. There was a terrible explosion and Diesel was nearly killed. Had they known of it, his early critics would have regarded the experiment as a humiliating fiasco for him. The word "fail" may be included in the bright lexicon of inventors; if it is, it has not its customary meaning. To a Diesel a failure is merely a lesson. It teaches what must be avoided. As an experiment, that first engine of his, which never turned a wheel, was an encouraging success—at least in his eyes. Probably he went home highly elated that his first motor had been blown to pieces. "I knew then just what I wanted to know," he once said. "It was proved possible to compress pure air so highly that the fuel injected into it ignited."

Four years of arduous experimenting followed that explosion before the first commercial Diesel oil motor was ready for public inspection. When that motor was first exhibited, it created a sensation. Not since Watt's time had such a vast improvement in engines been made. Augsburg, the little Bavarian town where this new mechanical marvel might be seen, became a Mecca for engineers from all parts of the world.

Since that memorable day the invention has made rapid strides. It is found in small five-horse-power sizes in many a little European machine-shop and in large units of 1,200 horse-power in factories. More than three hundred vessels are driven by Diesel motors—queer, stackless ships whose owners probably find comfort not only in the happy financial circumstance that crude oil injected into a cylinder on the Diesel principle is far cheaper than steam, but also in the knowledge that no sweating, suffering, begrimed men are penned in boiler-rooms shoveling coal hour after hour into the red, yawning mouths of fiercely burning furnaces. And they can voyage for amazing distances without replenishing their fuel supply—these vessels. One of them Dieseled its way from Copenhagen to Japan and back again without once renewing its stock of crude oil. A few transatlantic liners driven by Diesel engines are even now plying between Europe and South America. They are the harbingers of future Imperators—ships which will be spoken of, perhaps, not as "steamers," but as "oilers."

European builders of war-ships are even now conducting experiments with the Diesel engine which will ultimately give the fighting nations of the world a radically new type of battle-ship. That vessel will mark the beginning of a new era in the construction of fighting ships. She will mount heavy guns where huge smoke-stacks now protrude, and because an oil-injecting machine will take the place of a company of stokers, her engine-room force will be reduced to a mere handful of men. Even now most of the submarine torpedo-boats of the world's navies are driven by Diesel engines; but that was due simply to the impossibility of generating steam on a ship that must travel beneath the waves for hours at a time.

But what is this wonderful Diesel engine? An "internal combustion motor which burns oil," an engineer would answer briefly. To an untechnical reader that technical definition would be enough to cool his desire to become more intimately acquainted with one of the great inventions of our time. Fortunately the Diesel engine has a few features in common with the familiar automobile motor—also an "internal combustion engine"—so that the principle of its operation can be made plain without demanding too much in the way of technical knowledge.

As every one knows in these halcyon days of the motor car, an automobile motor has one or more cylinders in which a piston moves. When the piston moves down, it sucks in through a valve an explosive mixture of air and gasoline vapor. Then the valve is automatically closed, so that the mixture cannot escape. The piston now moves up and compresses the mixture. An electric spark flashes opportunely and ignites the charge. There is an explosion. The piston is driven down. When it moves up again, it pushes out the burned gases through a special valve opened for that purpose. On the next down stroke another charge of explosive mixture is drawn in, and the same series of operation—compression, explosion, discharge of the burned gases—is repeated. Such, in brief, is the operation of what is known as the "four cycle" automobile motor, so called because of the four piston movements required to effect the aspiration, compression, explosion, and ejection described.

Most Diesel engines also operate on this

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four-cycle principle. But there the resemblance of the Diesel to the ordinary automobile motor ends. When the piston of a Diesel engine moves down, it breathes in, not an explosive mixture of air and gasoline vapor, but pure, unalloyed air, like a human being. On the up stroke of the piston that air is squeezed against the cylinder head, and is thus subjected to the enormous pressure of 500 pounds a square inch. Air thus squeezed becomes very hot. In the Diesel engine its temperature rises to over 1,000 degrees, which is about as hot as a bar of iron heated to dull redness. At the critical moment, when the compressed air is hottest, a jet of finely atomized oil is forced into the cylinder. Immediately the oil catches fire; the compressed air expands with terrific force; the piston is driven down again. Then, as in the automobile engine, the burned gases are breathed out or discharged as the piston rises.

That, in essence, is the Diesel engine. Like all great inventions, it is astonishingly simple—so simple that it is difficult to regard it as not only a technical triumph, but as one of the most remarkable products of human ingenuity. Its novelty lies, not in its outward form, but in the new principle of igniting oil.

Why, it may be asked, why does not the compression in an automobile engine produce exactly the same result? For the simple reason that the compression is not high enough, is the answer. Hence an electric spark must be used in the automobile engine to ignite the explosive mixture, and an electric spark, as every automobile driver knows, means "ignition trouble." He knows, too, how nicely the spark must be timed to explode the mixture, and how easily soot may spoil all the best arrangements to secure proper timing.

Far more important is the fact that the fuel of a Diesel engine is not gasoline, which must be distilled from petroleum, and which brings twenty cents a gallon in the United States and forty cents in Germany, but crude oil, costing only a few cents a gallon. But most important of all is the fact that, instead of delivering but a paltry ten per cent of the energy stored in the fuel—the average efficiency of most steam engines, as we have seen—the Diesel motor yields as much as thirty-five per cent. Of this striking proof was given at the Turin Exposition of 1911. In the Machinery Hall a steam turbine and a Diesel engine were mounted side by side. Both were supplied with crude oil; but the crude oil of the Diesel engine was injected directly into its cylinder, while the crude oil for the turbine was first burned under a boiler to raise steam. For each horse-power generated the turbine consumed two and one-half times as much oil as the Diesel engine. Moreover, the turbine was attended by a formidable array of auxiliaries—a boiler plant, an apparatus for purifying the water fed to the boilers, feed pumps, steam pipes, and condensers. The smokeless, cinderless Diesel engine was accompanied merely by its fuel tank and a device to start the piston.

Let it not be assumed that the Diesel engine is limited to crude petroleum. It will burn any liquid fuel—tar, tar oils, and even animal and vegetable oils. That adaptability is of great significance to countries that have no rich oil deposits. For example, Germany produces enough tar to generate about one and three-quarter million horse-power three hundred days in the year, ten hours a day, according to Dr. Diesel's estimate. If her ports were blockaded in time of war and crude oil could not be obtained, her tar, burned on the Diesel principle, would still enable her inland industries to meet domestic demands. Moreover, because tar and oil can be so efficiently utilized as fuel, it is now impossible for a monopoly to maintain an exorbitant price in Europe for fuel oil. What we have tried to accomplish with the complicated mechanism of the courts a modern scientific inventor achieved more simply and directly by devising a new form of motor! Verily, the old tale of Goliath and David can be given a modern turn.

Every great invention has a profound economic effect, and the Diesel motor is no exception. Indeed, its industrial influence may be likened without exaggeration to that exerted by Watt's engine. Watt's invention made the modern factory possible, with all the good and the evil that that implies; Diesel's invention is destined to affect industry no less profoundly in teaching mankind how to conserve its diminishing fuel supply. Now that the Diesel engine is in commercial use, scientists are beginning to wonder whether the burning of coal under a boiler is not a sinful waste, and whether it should not all be converted into gas. For decades coal has been distilled in retorts in order to generate illuminating gas, coke and tar being left as residues. The Diesel engine can generate power from that tar almost as readily as it can from crude oil. *What is more, it will*

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generate from three to five times more power from the tar than if the original coal had been consumed under a boiler to drive a steam engine! Nations are taking stock of their fuel. The coal resources of the world are steadily dwindling. In a few centuries coal will be found only under the glass cases of museums. As the supply diminishes and the price rises, the necessity of husbanding what can still be mined at accessible depths will drive home the economic advantages of Diesel's invention. Surely an engine which enables the industrial world to obtain gas from coal for heat and light and to use the residual tar to generate power with unprecedented efficiency is an invention the economic importance of which may well be compared with that of Watt.

THE TEXAS TRAIL IN THE '70'S

BY SIDNEY LANIER

Sidney Lanier's Texas adventure, begun at the close of 1872, was in quest of a climate where lungs could be forgotten; for the world was seventeen years from the discovery that cure and vigor of the breathing organs lay in abundance of pure, free air, day and night, in any tolerable climate. His hope was to find in the bracing mountain region of Berne a home for the rearing of his children. But that "unprecedented winter" which loves to pursue a roaming invalid began its attack while he was shaping his course in San Antonio. A few brilliant, champagney days failed to balance the shrill northers and often-saturated atmosphere, and only watchful treatment saved the patient for return to his Georgia home in the spring. To this first disillusionment Mr. Lanier soon added the conviction that five years among libraries, music, and lifelong friends would count for more than ten or twenty deprived of these, and in a country so insecure that a drive with one's family a few miles outside its chief city was liable to end in their being picked up and carried off by a party of Indians, as had recently happened near San Antonio. Mr. Lanier had in mind a series of newspaper letters to follow this one of "The Texas Trail;" but illness defeated his plan, and confined within his delightful home letters many spirited sketches of the country and its motley throng of settlers.

San Antonio, Texas, December 9, 1872.

THE morning was brilliant, the air was full of a certain dry balm which, I think, is not known elsewhere in the world, and of which I shall have more to say anon, and as I stood on the hotel pavement, after a breakfast which I shall endeavor to forget just as soon as I *can* forget it, the stage—four horses to the fore—came merrily tooling down the street and rounded to with a rare tilt, up, down, sidewise, and askew, followed by a general tremulous settling down of things, such as can be accomplished by nothing in this world but a stage—unless it be a dromedary, perhaps, or a Channel steamer. Baggage and self are aboard in a trice, and we dash up the Main Street of Austin. In a moment we draw to the sidewalk and stop. So, we are not off? No, but my trunk is; for this is the stage office, and they've whipped the baggage out of the boot to weigh it. They weigh it. Presently the official calls my name, which is on my trunk. "Well," I say, "I'm the man." "*Three dollars and a quarter for extra baggage!*" says he. "We don't allow but fifty pounds."

"How much does she weigh, Captain?" I ask, with a melancholy effort to be jocular.

"Ninety pounds. Three dollars and a quarter, *if* you please," he replies, with a slight twinge of impatience; for he knows it is mean, and he does not like to be long about it.

For the moment a wild, vague idea of expostulation occurs to me; but, on glancing around at the faces of my fellow-passengers—two of whom have just been similarly phlebotomized before I got aboard, but now, base, dastardly wretches! are looking on at me with that half-smile which, I think, is the most abandoned expression of the human countenance, to wit, the smile with which the man who has been sold regards the man who is being sold—I perceive that I have no moral support, I faint, I hand the captain a

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five-dollar bill. He returns me a dollar and a quarter.

"How?" I say. "Three twenty-five from five leaves one seventy-five; you've only given me one *twenty*-five."

"Rates are in gold," he replies. "Knock off ten per cent from greenbacks; ten per cent on five dollars, fifty cents. Baggage on thar, Bill?"

And I am whirled on, a moralizing, reflective, mute passenger, even like Thomas Carlyle's savage, with all thoughts in the wild heart of me, but with no speech for any thought.

In a quarter of a mile we stop. Looking out of the window, I perceive we are at the head of a steep roadway which has been cut through the precipitous bluffs walling the river down to the water's edge. This, then, is the Colorado. The guard dismounts, comes to the window, and announces that he would prefer for the passengers to get out, as the bridge is not considered safe. Purely in order to humor this preference of the guards, we come forth, descend the hill in advance of the stage, and cross the bridge.

It is such a bridge as I have not seen since the Confederate army laid pontoons during the war. It is a pontoon bridge, rigged of ropes, pegs, and boxes of the very rudest description. Regarded horizontally, the bridge is in the shape of a bewildered S; and as the horses come with careful hoof across, the vertical undulation combines with the horizontal wriggle to serve me even as the world served Mr. Tulliver. It is too many for me; and I turn to look at the strange appearance of the river. We are in its dry bed. The bank we have left is a steep bluff; this is a gradual ascent, like an enormously wide strip of sea-beach, winding on alongside the flowing stream—which is not more than forty or fifty yards wide—in a far-stretching series of ribbon loops and curves. Strewed over this great shelving, dry bed are myriads of white limestone rocks, shapen marvelously like skulls and bones; it is, to all appearances, a broad exaggeration of that mournful *Jornada del Muerte* (Path of Death) across the plains. The similitude heats one's imagination all the more in that this mock death-road is accompanied by a plentiful stream of that life-giving water the lack of which has produced the real *Jornada del Muerte*. It is a River of Life side by side with a River of Death.

Re-embarking, we quickly emerge upon the great expanse of the rolling prairie. Occasionally there are trees, scattered singly or in small groups. These are mostly a sort of oaks, squat-trunked, round-topped; and what with the sere grass, the scene from the stage window is so much like an old field, with ancient apple trees here and there, that one is always looking for the old farm-house which should stand in some thicker clump, memorial of a time when these seeming fields were tilled and these seeming apple trees were tended. At long intervals one finds a thin belt of forest, and once, for a mile or two, the road winds through a bottom, between trees bearded with trailing moss. But mostly, on each hand, stretch the lonesome undulations of the prairie. Far, far, the eye strains; it is a kind of warm pursuit to look on farther; it is as if one hunted the distance; one grows eager, then sated, then tired, with one's acquisitions of spaces. The earth seems larger than the heavens; one feels that yonder horizon cannot circumscribe this vastness. The prairie with its miles of space, like Keats's Grecian Urn with its years of time, does

> "... Tease us out of thought
> As doth eternity: cold pastoral!"

But presently I am teased enough, and I turn to regard my fellow-passengers more closely. We are seven in stage. An old miner (as I afterwards pick up), from Chico, California, in a cap with let-down flaps, a quiet man, a simple, good soul, whom, if you *can* imagine Captain Cuttle with two sound arms and without his iron hook, you have before you; an editor from Indiana, a fat man with a pair of legs which might be very effective *on* the stage, but in one are very poor legs indeed, with no sort of capacity at all for folding or crossing or pressing together splint-wise or "splitting" with a *vis-à-vis*, all of which made me conceive a violent admiration for this gentleman, for, although he sat three-on-a-seat nearly the whole ride (of sixteen hours), he was nevertheless a marvel of good humor and cheerfulness all the time, *malgré* the nether torment he must have endured; a poor consumptive from Arkansas, whom may God take heed of; a lieutenant of cavalry from Pennsylvania, who has been home on leave and is now returning to the frontier; a Michigoose, or female Michigander, with her daughter, a very sprightly little gosling indeed, going to San Antonio to set up in the millinery line; and your correspondent, who is traveling as valet to his right lung—a

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service in which he has been engaged some years. These are the people whom I find that the four winds have blown into this little eddy. Truly, I say to myself, all the world *is* a stage, and I begin to listen to the other players who seem to have their parts well conned. The lieutenant is talking.

"I was out once [he is saying] on a scout after a party of Indians that had been committing some depredations. We had nearly caught up with them; in fact, we were right *on* them. Everybody was so tired, however, that Major ——, who was in command, finally allowed the party to rest. The orders were strict that no man should speak loudly and no fire should be lighted, and particularly that no gun should be fired on any account. Well, the commander stopped, a line of sentinels was formed around, and the men threw themselves on the ground to rest. Presently —after we'd all been lying about for a while —I happened to look up, and, by Jupiter, there was a tremendous grizzly bear deliberately walking right on to the line of sentinels! *Nobody spoke a word;* the bear kept on. Presently he reached the line. The sentinels nearest him stood with their guns cocked, looking uneasily at the Major. (The men were all as 'fraid of him as death.) The Major was standing up among the men, looking down on the ground. The men by this time had all seen the grizzly, and were all lying or sitting with their guns cocked, glancing from the bear to the Major, in the greatest uneasiness. *The Major didn't say a word.* The bear deliberately walked between two of the sentinels, and came slowly on till he was nearly in the very midst of the party. The excitement was *too* intense. You could almost hear the men's hearts beating. Still they wouldn't fire; they were more scared of the Major than the bear, I suppose. The bear started towards the Major. Still he looked down, *and didn't say a word.* He waited a little while—the bear kept on, slowly. Suddenly the Major threw up his head and bawled out:

"'*Why don't you shoot?*'

"I suppose forty bullets went into that bear's body at the same instant; at any rate, he never kicked."

We stop to dine at a house on the bank of a large creek whose bed, now dry, meanders with its dreadful white stones far away; we change horses; we cross San Marcos River, a beautiful clear stream which is born full grown of a few bold springs a mile or two above the crossing, and which would turn no end of mill-wheels—yea, which seems fairly to yearn for mill-wheels. A trot of a few hundred yards brings us into San Marcos, a smart and thriving town, where we take up a lady who tells us a world of things about matters in this land, and who becomes quite upset with surprise and pleasure at discovering accidentally that she had once met a lady who is known to the gentleman from Indiana; we prick forward and reach New Braunfels just at nightfall, finding a large clean German town, with all manner of evidences of German thrift on every hand, through which we pass to the hotel, where mine host, a large-framed and seeming large-souled German, is ready with a chair for the ladies to step out on; we file between the seats on the hotel porch, in which sit German giants—the people are all so large, splendid, healthy, that my lung fairly curdles with envious spite!—smoking, and take our honest German supper: brown bread, sausage, great collops of juicy venison, and coffee; we reseat ourselves again in the stage, light our cigars, and fare merrily forward through the night, what time the miner, who never had courage enough to say much while the light was, does now in the dark proceed to tell us the story of Jack the Indian: how that one day in camp Jack got a dollar apiece from a lot of Chinese to hide them in a certain cave he wot of, away from the tax-collector, and how Jack, having hid them away snugly, did then and there get fifty dollars from the tax-collector to show him where "them Chinese was," which Jack did, and which (quote my Ed'ard Cuttle) "Jack was the only one o' them Digger Indians with any sense that I ever see."

Presently I observe that the stage lamps continually light up a curious sort of bare straggling-twigged shrub that seems to line the road and to cover the prairie. It is as if the apparitions of all the leafless peach orchards in Georgia were lawlessly dancing past us and about us.

That, says the Lieutenant, is the mesquit. The mesquit is a bush—sometimes reaching to be a small tree—which has been extending eastward, it seems, for some time. Many have told me that it has covered this part of the country only within the last thirty years; and there is a popular belief that its spread on the prairies in the neighborhood of San Antonio has caused a marked increase in the rainfall of this section within the last few

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years and has converted what was formerly a purely grazing district into an agricultural one. I fancy, however, that Dr. Draper would not admit this conclusion, even granting that the rainfall *is* greater; and from meteorological facts which have been furnished me by Dr. V. Pettersen—an accomplished Swedish physician resident here, who has for four years past been collecting these data with the aid of improved instruments—I think the inference is safe that the assumption of an increased rainfall is incorrect, as based upon the mere concurrence of two years somewhat wetter than the average, but whose moisture is more than counterbalanced by the unusual dryness of the two contiguous years. Whether, however, the singular spread of the mesquit (which *is* certainly true) may or may not have increased the rainfall, it has unquestionably been of vast benefit in other ways. Its roots do not penetrate downward, but grow horizontally, just beneath the surface of the ground. They are easily dug; and they are the principal fuel of the country. This root is of the color of black walnut, is exceedingly hard, and is said never to decay. It burns well; by token, at this writing a stoveful of it is merrily blazing here in my apartment.

But the mesquit has uses other than as firewood. It is a species of acacia. At certain times a gum plentifully exudes from it, which, when the tannin which it contains is extracted, is equal to the best gum arabic for all the purposes to which the latter can be applied. This property of the mesquit has, I am told, begun to furnish employment to a considerable number of persons in this section, and will likely create a new branch of industry.

CHILDLESS AMERICANS

BY ETHEL WADSWORTH CARTLAND

I AM thirty-one years old, of what is called native American stock (which in my particular case means English and Scotch immigrants of 1635), a college woman, wife of a clergyman, and mother of four ordinarily beautiful, healthy, intelligent children.

A few days ago I overheard a sneering remark about the *American* family, described as composed of father, mother, and two children. A bitter prophecy was uttered that the good old American stock will soon be a thing of the past, since we refuse to have children. I felt as though some one had seized me by the throat. Since then I have been considering whether this can be true; if so, why it should be so, and what a tragedy it is, if true. I have reviewed my experience as a mother; the excuses American women offer for their refusal to have children; the right, and only right, attitude for us to take, its importance and even its necessity for our people.

I counted the families (all native American stock) on our street. I counted the number of children they have, and found that in twenty-two families there are forty-two children. I was surprised—indeed, dismayed—in finding an average of about two to each family. I had not realized the fact.

I then recalled the town where we lived two years ago, where I was also intimately acquainted. On our street, a short one, I found nineteen children in nine families (again old American stock), slightly over two in a family. Then I tried the street on which we lived five years ago, in a different one of the New England States, and here I found only eighteen children in sixteen families. Then in a third New England State I tried a certain street in a town where I lived previous to my marriage, and found that in the eighteen families (again old American stock) there were just thirty-six children.

I was in this way convinced that it is actually true of New England. I hope it is not true of the West and South. But, as the East is the oldest part of our country, is there not danger that this condition may by and by come to pass in the West and South also?

The remark of a young friend about to be married also suggested itself—to the effect that there was no need of her having children, and she did not intend to have any. I recalled a similar remark made to my husband by a male friend. Yes, I must believe that it is true in New England, and intentionally so. In reviewing my list of streets, I was struck

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by the fact that the three *ministers'* families included have, respectively, four, five, and seven children! They form the notable exceptions. Just about one-third of the families recalled have automobiles!

Why is it that we Americans are having so few children? Does the high cost of living account for it? That may influence some families, but certainly not many, for the old American families never had much money. If the cost of living has increased, so have the bank accounts. Are we not marrying later in life? Yes; I married at twenty-six, my mother at twenty-two, and my grandmother at twenty. But this is a trivial reason. Do not people expect to do more for their children? Yes; I am a college woman, my mother graduated from a normal school, but my grandmother had only a district school education, with some private instruction. Also, my parents having left the farm when young people, there was less for their children to be helpful about. We do more for our children and expect less from them, so we naturally feel that we cannot afford to have so many.

People will be imitative. A friend who has but one child, now a young man, recently confided in me that she wishes, now, she had more children. She said she often thinks how much company a daughter would now be to her.

"Why did you not have more children?" I asked.

"Oh, well," she explained, "Mrs. B, who was married at the time I was, didn't have any children at all, neither did Mrs. C or Mrs. D. I was quite the exception, with my one, and I naturally thought that enough. Now, however, I wish I had more—a girl, anyway."

Another friend of mine waited until six years after her marriage before she began to have her family of three children. She wished to enjoy some "pleasure," save some money, and so on, with the customary explanation. A few days ago she confided in me that she was sorry she had waited.

"I was twenty-six when I was married, and my husband was forty," she explained. "We waited those six years—till I was thirty-two and he was forty-six. It was hard on us both. I guess I was too old. Our first baby died at birth, and the two we have are so frail! I know, now, it would have been better if I had not waited. If I had only known how it would be!"

Then the function of motherhood—how is it regarded? With enthusiasm or reverence among us, or as an unfortunate accident to be deplored or ashamed of? There is much talk about "the duties of mothers," but is there much said about *the duty of being a mother?* We admire the Madonna on the wall; do we cherish the Madonna in our midst?

In many ways the life of women, in growing wider, has grown more shallow. We are brought closer together by the telephone, telegraph, trolleys, rural mail service, and other inventions; we have grown more social through the mushroom growth of clubs and other organizations; school education has contributed its share in increasing our knowledge of and pleasure in our neighbors; but even as these opportunities for social enjoyment have come to women, so much harder has it become for them to give them up, as mothers must.

With equal education for boy and girl has come a different ideal for woman in the mind of man. When my father sent me to college, a friend of his remonstrated:

"Why do you send her off to school and pay out all that money for her? The first thing she does when she graduates will be to get married, and then she'll be no better off, nor you either. Women are for domestic life, created for it, planned for it, and fitted for it; you're only going to make her discontented with her life as she'll find it."

Now, however, man generally feels that woman should not be denied intellectual and social opportunities. Man enjoys and delights in her attainments in those and other fields. Recognizing her hard lot from time immemorial, he condones her selfishness and commiserates her inevitable sufferings.

Then, too, work calls women away from their homes. They are so well trained to work outside the home, there are so many congenial occupations and positions they may take, that housework and home-keeping, child-bearing and child-training, have not been emphasized in their education or prepared for as a probable life-work. With all we do for our daughters, we no longer put first the preparation for these most important and fundamental duties; but, instead, music, china-painting, voice-culture, dancing, deportment, and a thousand other accomplishments, well enough in their place. And when the bridal day comes to our girls, as it does come to the majority of them, and they face domestic duties and motherhood, they

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feel incompetent, and gladly excuse themselves for escaping the responsibility of them.

Yes, here we come to the heart of the matter. With education for woman has come also *the knowledge of how she may remain childless*. And in the practical application of this knowledge she has not realized that in seeking freedom from care and pain she has betrayed the sacred trust imposed on her by the Creator, and that she hopelessly and irretrievably wrecks the future of her people. The small birth rate among the old American stock is mainly willful selfishness on the part of the man and the woman. Yes, it must be said, the old stock, the grand old stock, the fine, cultivated, progressive, loyal, Puritan stock, is dying out! The native Americans, my own beloved people, are passing from the life of the Nation—a passing suicidal! The grand old stock that fought the battles of the Indian wars and of the Revolution is going down and out! The Indians vanish because they must. Not so the native Americans; they go because they *will!*

What suffering do I undergo when I have a child? Physically, it means three months of nausea, three months of comparative comfort, three months of excessive weariness and discomfort, a brief (and therefore negligible) season of severe pain, and a year of constant care of the child. Mentally, it involves months when I feel excessively disgusted with myself, my condition, and my surroundings. I rebel because I am so afflicted; I hate my appearance; I mourn the absence of social privileges; I loathe the seemingly unending discomfort of day and night; and I groan for deliverance, while I shiver with apprehension of the pain before me. I am very sensitive to all impressions, alternating between moods of dreamy happiness and sullen discontent. Because I do dearly love the fluttering touch of baby hands, and continually wonder at what God makes through me, I feel—scientists and professors to the contrary—that all I do at this time must modify my child, and I feel strongly the need of a *man* to support, defend, and encourage me till the deliverance.

But with the birth of the child comes recompense for all. In the succeeding months, especially if a mother is able to nurse her child, she reaches the height of living. Physically, the shock of bearing the first child is great, and the return to health is slow, and because of it many women feel that they ought never to bear another, not realizing that, providing no actual harm has been done by the first birth, every succeeding one will probably be quicker and less painful and the return to health speedy. The coming of my second child proved a blessing in disguise, for my strength had never come back fully after the birth of the first, yet this one left me fitter physically than I had ever been in my life before. The others which followed in quick succession left me rosy-cheeked and strong. To the nursing mother the tide of life comes flooding in, and at such times I have felt that I could lift mountains, that I could leap rivers—that I could accomplish anything materially or spiritually that I set out to do. Oh, nature loves a mother! She gives her that excess of vitality she wishes transmitted to the race of men. It means a new revelation of life for a woman to have a child; she sounds then the height and depth of it. This is life's greatest experience for a woman; it lays bare the depths of her soul; all her virtues and her sins are set before her; she is plunged from heaven to hell, from hell to heaven. No woman for whom it is possible and wise should ever miss the adventure. She will see herself for the first time; she will stand on the edge of the world, and never be the same. Afterwards she will have in her possession the most valuable thing the world is able to produce—a human child, the highest pinnacle of creation. What production is of any value beside this? It is the greatest contribution she can make to her country, to her race, and it is a wholly inexcusable neglect on the part of any woman if she for selfish reasons refuses the gift.

But oh, the excuses women offer for their childlessness! And the medical profession seemingly dare not say them nay. I know several women who were advised by their physicians not to have children, yet who have had them and become strong and vigorous, though they had never before in their lives been well. Nature is inexorable, but most often kind. I am reminded of the Frenchwoman a friend told me of who nearly died at the birth of her first child. Three doctors attended her and pulled her up from the grave. Her family physician warned her never to have another child, as it would certainly kill her. Within a year her husband died, and the following year she remarried. The second husband desired a family. He got it! The woman gave birth to *nine* children, and the births were so quick that she never had time

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to call in the doctor till after the event. For some women pregnancy would no doubt be dangerous—and they are excused—but such women are so few as to be negligible. A friend who had been married six years and had remained childless once assured me that he did not intend to have a child until he had secured $10,000. The following year I received a letter from his wife announcing the arrival of a son, and declaring that she was happier than she had ever been before. How the father felt I do not know, but I am sure he must have concluded that whatever bank account he had at the time could not diminish his own joy.

While I feel as strongly as any one that a woman should refuse to have children if there is fear of the consequences upon the child, as in the case of direct insanity, tuberculosis, syphilis, inebriety, or other diseases; that no criminals, paupers, or subnormal parents should have children, this should furnish no excuse to ordinary, normal parents. Some women are cowards and shrink from the pain, as some men are lazy and avoid work. Some women fear to lose their beauty and form. Some women are too prim. Others are too cold. Many are too selfish, and crave all the pleasure of this life and none of its pain. Some women do not like children, and do not think they have patience enough to bring up children. Almost anything furnishes an excuse.

How many children should a woman have? This question can be answered rightly only by the woman herself. Certainly as many as are consistent with her health and circumstances. If the spirit is willing and the flesh strong, the answer will always be sufficient. But too many American women are content with two children, just enough to take the parents' place, and are unwilling to bear any for the upbuilding of the race. They seem satisfied to lavish their love upon just two, to permit them to grow up selfish and alone, and if any harm strikes down the little ones, they then have none to take their places—perhaps it is too late for more—and, oh, the anguish of the childless home where once the little ones made every day radiant! And then the childless mother says:

"Mine ear is full of the murmur of rocking cradles!"

Oh, you selfish American woman, there is room for the automobile in your heart and home, but the little darlings you might have call to you in vain!

Statisticians inform us that each American home *must* have at least four children for the perpetuation of the race, and that the more fortunate ones should have from six to eight to make up for the loss in the poorer families.

There is no other way for us to get our children, and without them we native Americans will soon vanish from the earth. We must drink of this cup of suffering. We must sit in this darkened room. We must embark on this unknown sea. We must look in the face of death. We must wrest this treasure from nature for our country and our people. Women have a world reputation for talking; let us talk less and do more. There is but one hope for our perpetuation—that same iron will that in olden days sustained our forefathers in England in their struggle after civil and religious liberty, and held them true through constant persecution; that same iron will which led them to sail the uncharted ocean, to land in the fearsome wilderness of the savage and through unimaginable horrors still to hew the wood and plant the field, and to build up the Nation that is ours. That same Puritan conscience and stern devotion to duty, that same unswerving purpose, is the only hope of salvation for our native American families.

Too often we see the childless intellectual wife whose conversation holds us enthralled; too often we see the childless artistic wife whose productions may be world famous; too often we see the childless belle of the evening, glorious as Venus of old, who should be at home on her knees praying that God would give her a child! Too often we see the childless mansion with its many rooms, its lawns, fountains, and flowers, its fields and woods and farms; and on the edge of the estate a little hovel where our future citizens crowd each other out into the world. Shall we, the native Americans of to-day, deliver to others more humble the rich and glorious land for which our forefathers suffered and died, and where they dreamed that *we* should erect the ideal republic as a symbol to the other nations of earth?

"I am she that hath borne no children;
Yet there is no one hath cursed me,
I look the same as the others.
But the nests pity me even;
The sun—the mother of stars—hath compassion
Upon me, and saith,
'O childless woman! What dost thou
With all the days I make bright?'"

—*Bard of the Dimbovitza.*

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DEMOCRATIC IDEALS

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

This is the third of the more important addresses made by Mr. Roosevelt in South America. It was delivered at Buenos Aires on Friday, November 7, under the auspices of the Museo Social Argentino, and before a large audience. It will be remembered that it was an invitation from the Museo Social to visit the Argentine Republic for the purpose of delivering addresses on subjects of international interest that led to the more extended South American journey of which, in a sense, this address at Buenos Aires is the culminating point. Mr. Roosevelt arrived at Buenos Aires from Montevideo on the cruiser Uruguay on November 5. As the cruiser entered the harbor salutes were fired from war-ships and Mr. Roosevelt was met as he landed by a representative of President Pena and by many officials and heads of civic organizations. One newspaper states that on his way to the United States Legation he was cheered by two hundred thousand persons. He was the guest of the American colony at a banquet on November 5, and attended a more formal banquet the next night, following a reception by the Museo Social. During his stay he was the guest of the President of the Republic.—THE EDITORS.

THE democratic movement is now, so far as concerns civilized nations, a well-nigh world-wide movement. I come from one of the great democracies of the present and the future. I am speaking to another of the great democracies of the present and the future. There are many striking similarities, oh, my hearers, between my own country and this great country of yours of which at the moment I am the guest. In both there is the same teeming fertility of the soil and variety of resources, and therefore of pursuits. In both there has been the same astounding growth of a virile and energetic population. In both there has been the same piling up of material prosperity. In both side by side with the material progress we have seen the ominous development of those problems with which all of our latter-day industrial civilizations throughout the world are faced.

Of course each nation has its own peculiar characteristics for good and for evil, and therefore each nation has to face certain problems which are peculiarly its own. But, after all, our likenesses are more important than our differences, and the chief and the most numerous of the questions with which we are face to face are nearly the same, for all of us. This is especially true of your country and mine, both young, both of vast physical area, both growing by leaps and bounds, both in the flush of an enormous material development.

There are nations so backward that they are not as yet in any real sense fit for self-government. Self-government cannot be thrust upon nations from without. It must be developed from within. It cannot exist unless the people have a strong and sound character. Yet its non-existence may not indicate lack of character. It may mean merely that the people have been torpid. Many nations in which the very name self-government would have been meaningless within the memory of men now living are to-day preparing to achieve the actual fact. In Asia itself, the Asia which our fathers regarded as fixed and immovable, there is a stirring which looks as if even in that ancient continent the people in mass were awakening to a sense of their rights.

But we must never forget that the awakening to a demand for rights will mean nothing unless the awakening to a sense of duty goes with it. Self-government is the best of all governments, but it is also the most difficult. Only a very advanced people, a people of sound intelligence, and, above all, of robust character, is fit to govern itself. No gift of popular institutions will avail if the people who receive them do not possess certain great and masterful qualities, and, above all, the combination of two qualities—individual self-reliance and the power of combining for the common good. Similarly, they must possess both the quality that tells in favor of a high idealism and also the quality that gives sound practical common sense in the effort to realize this high ideal. The resolute insistence upon their own rights must go hand in hand with the ready acknowledgment of the rights of others. Above all, there must be in the people the power of self-control. There must

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always be government, there must always be control, somewhere. If the individual cannot control himself, if he cannot govern himself, then the lack must be supplied from outside. Exactly the same thing is true of nations. Only those peoples who to self-reliance and self-confidence add also self-control can permanently embark on the difficult course of molding their own destinies.

The people of the Argentine have achieved this high quality of citizenship, as the people of my own country have achieved it. But you and we alike must remember that we can never afford to forget the need of possessing this quality. If we surrender ourselves to be governed by our own passions and folly and ignorance, then surely in the end, from without the country or from within the country, a master will arise to dominate us. A strong people need never fear a strong man or a strong government; for a strong government is the most efficient instrument, and a strong man the most efficient servant, of a strong people. It is an admission of popular weakness to be afraid of strong public servants and of an efficient governmental system. But it is an even more culpable weakness for the people not to shape their governmental system so that they retain in their own hands absolute control over both their servants and their agencies of government. They must remain absolute masters of the constitution under which their government works, and of the human instruments through whom the work is done.

The first essential to settle is who shall speak with authority. In democracies our answer is, the people. This necessarily means the majority of the people. Majorities change, however. The shifting of a small percentage of votes may, and as a matter of fact continually does, reverse the position of majority and minority in almost all democracies. It is therefore essential to secure forms of government under which two purposes shall be served. First, the people shall have ample opportunity deliberately to make up their minds, so that the course of action decided upon will not be due merely to whim. Second, when once the people have thus deliberately made up their minds, their decision must be rendered really, and not nominally, effective, and this without undue delay. The people should have ample time to think over a matter before coming to a definite decision. Once they have reached their decision, their action should be real and effective, and their power complete.

The power should always be exercised with due regard to the rights of the minority. No democracy is worth calling such unless the majority possess the power; but no democracy will endure as a democracy unless that power is exercised with wisdom and self-restraint, and with consideration for the rights and the interests of minorities. One of the great tests of democracy is this willingness of those who possess the power to exercise it with moderation and with a proper regard for the rights of others.

This limitation upon the exercise of power by the majority should normally spring from their own trained consciences and intellects, from their own characters, rather than be artificially produced by outside devices. Above all, there should be no pretense to give power with one hand while in reality it is taken away with the other. Sham, pretense, hypocrisy, are public vices everywhere, but nowhere are they as destructive as in a democracy. To make believe to give a man a power or a right, and yet not really to give it to him, trains him to be a bad citizen, helpless to assert his own rights, and prompt to do wrong to others.

Therefore we hold that the people should possess in fact the power with which in theory they are supposed to be dowered. There should never be any provision, especially by any trick or device smacking of pretense and insincerity, which robs them of this power. I believe with all my heart in order and stability, but I hold that in a people fit for self-government both can best be produced by giving the people full power. If they exercise this power badly, then they show that they are not fit for self-government; and in the end fate will surely hold them to a strict accountability for the misuse of the power which they have shown themselves unfit to retain.

Too often in the past constitution-makers have sought to appear to give with one hand what with the other they in actual fact withheld. They have sought, while nominally leaving the people free, really to impose authority upon them from without. I would be the first not merely to admit but to insist that there is peculiar need of leadership in a democracy. The very fact that the work is so enormously difficult and complicated makes it imperative that there should be men of the right type, fit to lead, if the work is to be a

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success. But these men must be leaders and not drivers. They must come to the front, they must take the lead, because they have persuaded their fellow-citizens that they have in them the wisdom, the courage, and the disinterestedness which will make them leaders for good and not for evil. One product of our own governmental system in the United States, the boss, is not a leader at all, but a driver. The position of the boss depends not upon his winning to his support the hearts and consciences of his countrymen, but upon his adroit management of political machinery. This sinister adroitness enables him either to thwart and override the expressed or unexpressed wish of the people, or else so to confuse them that they neither understand quite what they desire nor quite what the obstacles are that prevent their achieving their desires. The boss, the driver, is the antithesis of the leader. In my own country he has been developed largely because the governmental system has been ingeniously twisted so as to take away power from the leaders. To give power to the man whom the people elect and can themselves hold accountable is one way of removing power from the boss whom the people do not elect and whom they cannot hold accountable.

When a nation has grown sufficiently advanced for democracy, it should fully accept both the power and the responsibility for the exercise of the power. I do not believe in a sham. I do not believe in asserting that the people rule unless we make the actual fact correspond with the assertion. The methods of achieving this purpose must differ according to the temperaments, inherited customs, and habits of thought of the several peoples. Each of the free nations can wisely profit by the experience of the others; each should borrow without hesitation from any one of the others which has something of good. But in borrowing we should adapt the thing borrowed to our own peculiar use and need. Even within my own country, the United States, we have found by actual experience that one State may prosper under one code of laws or constitution which another State finds undesirable. There is no need for insisting on uniformity in these matters. There must be uniformity in the ends sought. There must be free recognition of the possible need of diversity in the methods of attainment.

We must never hesitate to test each theory by experience, unless by such a test it is often impossible to tell how a theory will act, and we must ever combine high idealism with practical common sense in realizing the ideal. We must carefully avoid adhering to any practice merely because it is old. We must no less carefully avoid adopting any practice merely because it is new. Things that are good, that indeed are indispensable for one generation, may be exceedingly inadvisable under the changed conditions of a later generation. In such a case it is folly to permit ourselves to be bound by the dead hand of the past. It is at least as great folly to abandon what is working well unless there is a reasonable certainty that the change will be an improvement.

In my own country we are growing more and more to believe that the only safe rule in a democracy is to give the people themselves the right, after due deliberation, to decide finally on every subject which they deem of vital importance. The public servants—legislators, executives, and judges alike—must be in very fact the servants of the people. The people must have the right to make and unmake these public servants, in order to hold them strictly accountable for their stewardship. They must also have the right on their own initiative to pass upon laws which the legislature has passed or which it has refused to pass, if the legislature does not correctly represent them. Finally, the people must not surrender to the judiciary, any more than to the executive or legislative branches of the government, the final decision as to what laws they are to be permitted to have. In my own country it often happens that vitally necessary and important laws, demanded in the interests of the people, are declared unconstitutional by a reactionary court. In such a case what really happens is that one agent of the people, the legislature, passes the law, and another agent of the people, the court, declares that it has not the power to pass it. The remedy in such a case is obvious. When two agents differ, the principal must decide between them. The people are the masters of all their governmental agents if there is any sincerity in our belief in democracy. Where their servants, their agents, disagree, the people themselves should have the right to step in and say which of their two servants, the court or the legislature, represents their deliberate and well-thought-out conviction.

There must be sovereignty somewhere.

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There are few evils greater than a divided sovereignty, where no one can say in whose hands the final power is lodged. There are few evils greater than an irresponsible sovereignty, where the final power is exercised by men who cannot be held accountable for its exercise. Men who fear and distrust the people, and yet dare not openly avow their fear and distrust, constantly endeavor, under the forms of democracy, to rob the people of all real power by one or the other of these two devices. They give the people the form of sovereignty, but they lodge the power of sovereignty elsewhere. This is a grave evil. Nominally to give the people the sovereignty, and at the same time covertly to withdraw it from them, means a weakening of the spring of responsibility in the people. In my own country this expedient is especially favored by certain great privileged interests, who for two generations have sought to place sovereignty in the courts and to give them a political and non-judicial power, in order to lodge this power in the hands of those who cannot be held accountable by the people for its exercise.

In the United States the courts have gradually assumed certain powers which are purely political. These powers are in no sense judicial. They are not such as courts in European countries exercise. In consequence it is necessary to provide for popular control over the exercise of these powers by the courts. Such control would be both unwise and unnecessary so far as purely judicial functions, the functions relating to justice as between one individual and another, are concerned. Such concern is not merely wise but indispensably necessary where the functions exercised are legislative and political. In the United States the courts have assumed to be the special interpreters of the Constitution. They have assumed the right to say what the people are, and what they are not, to be allowed to do in providing social and industrial justice; and this without appeal from the decision of the court, which is to be accepted as final. There was a time when this assertion of power by the Federal Court, made very cautiously and sparingly, represented a real governmental advance; for at that time we were still in the gristle, we had not hardened into a nation. There was only a very cumbrous provision for appealing to the people as such. The Court did not at that time usurp power that the people could exercise. It merely assumed power that no other agent of the people effectively exercised. Under the then conditions the Court by the action it took did in fact more nearly than any other governmental instrumentality embody the National ideal. But, as was probably inevitable, the power was by degrees greatly abused. This has been especially true during the past thirty or forty years. Nowadays many well-meaning and sincere judges have grown to regard themselves as having a God-given right to declare on their own responsibility what laws the people are to be allowed to enact. This is an intolerable position. The people must be in fact, and not merely nominally, the masters of their own destiny; and in our country we have found by actual experiment that they can be more safely intrusted with their destinies than can any group of outsiders.

The trouble which has been caused in the United States by the use of the courts in the interest of special privilege to block the cause of social and industrial justice is a problem almost exclusively of our own country. It is, however, of interest to all democracies as showing how important it is that the people shall not let the control of governmental matters slip out of their own hands. Moreover, it is of special interest to all other federal republics, such as the Argentine. I shall therefore briefly describe to you just what our problem is.

The republic of the United States was formed by the people of thirteen separate commonwealths. They decreed a union for specific purposes, which were either enumerated in the written Constitution under which the Government was started or else were necessarily implied in order to carry out those that were enumerated. The Constitution was framed, and the Nation was thereby given efficient form, a century and a quarter ago. It was the first experiment in organizing a republic on a scale as gigantic as that of any empire. It was therefore quite impossible even for the wise men who drew up and secured the adoption of the Constitution to foretell all the difficulties that would arise even as regards the governmental workings of the Nation as they knew it. Far less was it possible for them or any one else to foretell the problems that would arise after the marvelous industrial development of the next century had entered upon its full career. Although a federal republic, the United States differed completely from the impotent federal republics of the past, because the National Government within its own sphere

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dealt directly with the citizens of the several States, and not with the States themselves. According to the theory of government then deemed wisest by the best thinkers, the powers were divided between the executive, the legislative, and the judicial branches. The framers of the Constitution very wisely intrusted the executive powers into the hands of a President who owed his power to, and was to be held accountable by, the people and not the lawmaking branch of the Government. They unwisely sought to prevent his direct election by the people, but this error has since been remedied, and in actual practice the President is now elected by direct popular vote. The legislature possesses the functions that similar legislative bodies in other countries possess.

As originally founded, the judiciary was also intended to possess the powers that the courts at that time held in the great civilized nations of the Old World, England especially, and France and Germany. For a dozen years after the foundation of the Government the Federal Court of the United States confined itself substantially to the exercise of such functions as then were, and still are, exercised by the courts of England, France, Germany, and other European Powers. In one early case the decision ran counter to the strong general sentiment of the people of the Union, whereupon they promptly recalled the decision, passing a Constitutional amendment, the eleventh, specifically declaring that in such cases the Constitution was to be construed in a sense exactly the reverse of that in which the Supreme Court had just construed it. The term had not at that time been invented, and the proceeding was needlessly cumbrous even for those early and comparatively simple days, but the principle was precisely that which has since been styled the "recall of judicial decisions." The Supreme Court, in this given case, construed the Constitution as permitting a certain action; whereupon the people as a whole, by popular vote and through their representatives, reversed the decision, and directed that thereafter the Constitution should be construed in exactly the opposite way. Washington was President, and many of the other men who took part in framing the Constitution held high office, at the time that this recall of the decision of the Supreme Court by popular vote was carried through; and they either favored or acquiesced in the action. The doctrine that the people have not the right themselves, in orderly fashion and by whatever procedure they choose to provide, to change or construe the Constitution as they desire, would have seemed to Washington and his associates servile and the negation of true democracy. At that time the Court never dreamed of asserting such a right as against the people. Indeed, at that time the Supreme Court did not sufficiently assert itself even against other Governmental agencies of the people. Congress passed laws which aroused violent antagonism in certain sections of the Union, and two of the States declared that they had the right to nullify these laws. Of course the admission of any such right was equivalent to National suicide, and neither the Federal Court nor any other Federal Government authority would nowadays for a moment tolerate its attempted exercise; yet at that time no one thought of invoking the authority of the Federal Court in the matter.

It was not until a very great man, Marshall, became Chief Justice that the Federal Court began seriously to arrogate to itself the right, a negative but vitally important right, to say whether or not the legislature had the power to pass laws which the Court did not regard as proper under the Constitution. The assertion of this right at once overthrew the theory that each of the three different departments of government was supreme in itself. If the Supreme Court of the United States has the power to annul acts of Congress, it is itself not merely a judicial but a lawmaking power of the first consequence, for it is the final, the sovereign, authority. This is a tremendous authority. The right to annul the law or to change it—as by judicial decision the fourteenth amendment to the United States Constitution has been vitally and, as I hold, lamentably changed—is the right to govern. The authority that is able to say by what laws the people shall be governed is the sovereign authority in the State. For sixty years the greatest Presidents—Jefferson, Jackson, and Abraham Lincoln—opposed this doctrine as laid down by the Supreme Court. It seems to me, however, that they never, any of them, not even Lincoln, formulated the right theory of opposition to the doctrine. Each of them fought against it on behalf of another branch of the Government, either the executive or the legislative. Their proper ground of opposition should have been, not that the Court usurped power belonging to the executive or

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the legislative branch, but that it usurped power belonging to the people.

My personal judgment is that Marshall rendered a great service at the time of his decision, because up to that time there had not been any really sovereign power. It was necessary that there should be somewhere established such a sovereign power. It was better that the Court should have the final say than that any other branch of government should have it, or that it should not exist anywhere. Moreover, at first the power was exercised with the greatest caution, and this continued for half a century. But as the power hardened into an almost unquestioned, and then into an unquestioned, right, the judges began to assert it more and more frequently. For a third of a century it has now been exercised with what I am forced to say, speaking gravely and deliberately, has been inexcusable and reckless wantonness, on behalf of privilege, and against the interests of the very people for whom it is most needful that the power of the Government should be invoked.

The Federal judges are appointed for life. In the different States various methods of election and appointment of their judges are followed. The judges are, on the whole, able and upright men, and public servants of a very high order. Some of them, in spite of their surroundings, retain an absolutely liberal mind, and these men render service such as no other public servants can or do render. But considering the judges as a whole, their necessary and inevitable tendency is to become over-conservative, and quite unconsciously to get out of touch with the needs and aspirations of the people as a whole. They are admirably fit to do justice under the law. But they have no special fitness to say what the laws shall be under which the average men and women of the Nation are to lead their lives of toil and happiness. Not only the Federal judges, but the judges of the various States, have assumed the right in hundreds of cases to set aside laws; and in scores of cases these laws have been the very laws that were vitally necessary in order that the conditions of life and of labor might be bettered as regards those of our people whose need was greatest.

I wish you to remember that in all this I am not speaking of any judicial function of the judge properly so called. I am not speaking of the judges' power to administer the law and to apply it and do justice as between man and man. I am speaking only of the function exercise by the judges of the United States, but not exercised by any judge in England or Germany or France or any similar great industrial European nation. I am speaking of the exercise by the judges of the United States of the political or legislative right to annul laws, and to declare that the people have no power to enact those laws which the judges do not think they ought to enact.

Let me illustrate just what I mean, in order to show you that I am speaking with exact and accurate reference to the facts. The people of the State of New York declared that bakers who worked under unhealthy conditions in underground factories should not labor over ten hours a day. The Supreme Court of the United States said that they had no power to pass such a law, and annulled it. Again, the people of the State of New York declared that in crowded tenement-houses the men, women, and children should not be allowed to work at the tobacco trade under unhealthy conditions. The highest State court said that the people had no power to pass such a law. Yet again, the people of the State of New York declared that compensation should be paid by their employers for men killed or crippled in dangerous industries; the highest State court said that the people had no power to enact such a law. In other cases various courts declared that the people had no power to limit the hours of labor of women, or to prevent them working under improper conditions at night; had no power to force employers to safeguard dangerous machinery around which women and children were employed; had no power to forbid the truck store or company store system; and so on and so on. I could enumerate scores of such decisions in which various courts annulled law after law urgently demanded in the interest of humanity. In these cases the courts kept the law barbarous, kept it from being humanized, put property rights above human rights, and sanctioned almost every abuse in the interest of property no matter how great the damage it did to humanity. The judges who rendered these decisions were not bad men—they were well-meaning and honest men. But they had no idea how the great bulk of their fellow-countrymen lived and worked. They knew nothing of the life needs of the average man and average woman of their Nation. Quite uncon-

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sciously they zealously served the cause of a small privileged caste and exerted their great power in favor of those who least, and against those who most, needed it. I believe in property rights; I believe that normally the rights of property and of humanity coincide; but sometimes they conflict, and where this is so I put human rights above property rights. There are many of us in the United States who will never rest content while the condition against which I protest continues. We believe that the only wise government for a democracy is a government by the majority, changing easily as the deliberately expressed will of the majority itself changes. We believe that the Constitution of the United States is not a strait-jacket designed to restrain a disorderly and incompetent people from controlling its own affairs, but, on the contrary, an instrument wisely devised to help the orderly growth of the people toward a juster and fairer life system. Therefore we believe that it should be made readily possible to change this instrument in any particular where change is found necessary. We further believe that the administration of justice should be humanized. We believe that by some means quick and available to the people the incompetent or unjust judge should be removed from office. We believe that the whole body of the electorate shall at all times and under all circumstances be the ones to say by what laws they shall be governed. We deny the right of the courts to annul laws which the people desire because these laws do not accord with the economic ideas of the judiciary. We hold that the people have the right at all times and under all conditions to say by what laws they are to be governed, and that those who deny this theory are not loyal to the theory of republicanism. We hold that the democratic movement of to-day means that all the people must in some shape work together for the welfare of all in order to secure wider opportunity to all. We believe that only in this fashion will it prove possible to secure greater freedom to the average individual and a larger and juster distribution of the benefits of life.

When such are our deep convictions, we cannot and will not submit to the doctrine that laws to guarantee these benefits can, at their own pleasure, be annulled by public servants who are not responsible to the public and who have different economic ideas from the public. We have encountered violent opposition because we have provoked the unrelenting enmity of certain great financial interests. Some of these great interests are anxious improperly to exploit the people; others wish to deal honestly by the people, but distrust the people, and, although they desire to treat them fairly, desire to give this fair treatment from the standpoint of a benevolent despotism, which we regard as intolerable. These interests derive an immense advantage from the injection into our Government of reactionary governmental and economic ideas by well-meaning judges of over-conservative temperament, who unconsciously respond to arguments advanced by shrewd and able corporation lawyers.

We do not confine ourselves to mere scolding. We do not merely denounce what we do not like. We have a definite plan which has been outlined above. The courts are continuously by their decisions annulling laws which the people desire to have enacted. They are in effect continually amending the Constitution against the deliberate intent of the people who made the Constitution. Judicial amendment to the Constitution is fatally easy. Popular amendment is so difficult that at best it needs ten or fifteen years to put it through. The theory of the Constitution against which we protest takes away from the people as a whole their sovereign right to govern themselves. It deposits this right to govern the people in the hands of well-meaning men who either are not elected by the people, or at least are not elected for any such purpose, who cannot be removed by the people, and who too often perversely pride themselves on having no direct responsibility to the people. We propose to make the process of Constitutional amendment far easier, speedier, and simpler than at present. Furthermore, we propose that, in any specific case where the court declares unconstitutional a given law in the interest of social justice, the people themselves shall have the power to decide whether, notwithstanding such decision, the law in question shall become part of the law of the land.

Let me repeat once more, for it cannot too often be repeated, that I am not speaking of any judicial function of the courts. I am speaking of their lawmaking function, of their Constitution-making function. Even as regards this, we do not advocate taking away from them the power which they have assumed as regards the legislative and executive. We do not intend to reduce them to

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the position in which judges stand in England, France, Germany, and the other great civilized countries of the Old World, where the judges cannot control in even the smallest degree the lawmaking power of the legislature. But we do intend that in these matters of lawmaking and Constitution-making the people shall be made supreme over the courts, not merely nominally and theoretically, but practically and as a matter of actual fact. Our proposal is that the court shall continue to have the right to declare a given law of the legislature unconstitutional; but that in such case the people shall have the right, by expeditious process, after taking time for deliberation, but without any improper or excessive delay, to say whether the legislature or the court shall be held best to have interpreted their wishes. We do not wish to take away the power of the courts to pass on the constitutionality of a law. But where they thus declare a law unconstitutional, we wish to give to the people who made the Constitution, whose fathers died for it, who now live under it, and to whom it belongs, the right to say whether or not the law shall stand. We wish to make the people the supreme arbiters between their servants the court and the legislature when the court and the legislature differ as to the proper interpretation of the Constitution which the people made. We wish to give to the people the power finally to make their own Constitution, and to make it by declaring specifically what it is to be held to mean in any given case where the two servants of the people, the court and the legislature, disagree on some definite act in the interest of social and industrial injustice.

I have spoken at length of this matter because it is vital to the growth of democracy in my own country, and because the principle of the sovereignty of the people is vital to all democracy. If the people fail to exercise that sovereignty with justice, self-control, and practical good sense, then they show they are not fit for democracy. But if they are fit for democracy, then the sovereignty is and must be theirs, and theirs in fact and not merely in name. A free democracy fit for self-government must insist on governing itself and not being governed by others. Such a democracy can no more recognize the divine right of judges than the divine right of kings. It must itself declare what the laws and the constitution shall be.

IN CROWDED STREETS

BY MARTHA HASKELL CLARK

Upon the green-gloomed, silent trails I wandered far,
Nor knew myself alone, so friendly-near
There leaned the golden beacon of each star;
The mountains' shadowed forms, well known and dear,
Clasped hands with me across the valley's turn:
Against my face the hemlock branches drew
Cool, night-sweet fingers; dim amid the fern
Unfearing wood-folk gazed and cropped anew:
Each trail-side voice so dear, familiar-known
I could not shrink, nor feel myself alone.

But oh, the teeming solitude of crowded streets,
The heart-wrung loneliness of swarming mart,
The echoed Self-song of rude, jostling feet
That sets the homeless stranger-soul apart!
The heedless throng, sufficient each to each,
Heart-chained to schemes another may not share;
The hands withheld, the curt, unfriendly speech,
The desert bleakness of the twice-breathed air!
The very night winds unfamiliar-blown,
Within the city's heart I fared—alone.

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THE NEW BOOKS

Wallet of Time (The). By William Winter. In 2 vols. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $10.

Probably no man of letters in the country, certainly no dramatic critic, has had a longer experience in dealing with the theater or wider acquaintance with leading actors than Mr. William Winter. He has been the friend of almost every actor of distinction for a full generation. He is a writer of marked lyrical quality; his criticism has not always been judicial, for he is a good hater as well as a born lover; but he never fails to be intelligent and interesting. These two portly volumes contain the records of many interesting friendships with men and women of genius, and they also constitute a history of the American stage. Mr. Winter is extremely happy in painting portraits. An example of his skill is his study of John Gilbert, for many years the most admirable interpreter of old age on the American stage:

> Formal but not frigid, stately without pomp, dignified without severity, formidable in its self-reliance and reticence, individual, positive, scrupulous, and exact, but neither aggressive nor caustic, the personality of John Gilbert, although it impressed many of his acquaintances as exclusive and cold, was sincere, manly, gentle, and even tender. He had strong convictions. He was uncompromising. He never flattered anybody, and he never assumed a cordiality that he did not feel. His manner was usually urbane, but his temper was impetuous, and when offended by frivolity, professional incompetence, or sycophantic fawning—three things which especially he detested—he could express contempt and scorn with energetic indignation and righteous vehemence. The profession of the actor was, in his esteem, sacred. He allowed no levity on that subject.

No one has more adequately celebrated Edwin Booth's delicate genius, nor has any one more fully described the charm of his beautiful voice and his reading of Shakespearean verse, than Mr. Winter; but those characterizations must be found in another volume. In these volumes one of the greatest figures is that of Charlotte Cushman, a woman of extraordinary genius, who overcame obstacles which would have daunted a less courageous nature, and who snatched victory, as it were, from the jaws of defeat. Mr. Winter has this to say of her essential qualities:

> The greatness of Charlotte Cushman, therefore, was that of an exceptional because grand and striking personality, combined with extraordinary power to embody the highest ideals of majesty, pathos, and appalling anguish. She was not a great actress merely; she was a great woman. She did not possess the dramatic faculty apart from other faculties, and conquer by that alone; but, being affluent in that faculty, she poured forth through its channel such resources of character, intellect, moral strength, soul and personal magnetism as marked her as a genius of the first order while they made her an irresistible force in art. When she came upon the stage she filled it with the weirdness and the brilliant vitality of her presence. Every movement that she made was winningly characteristic. Her least gesture was eloquent. Her voice, which was soft or silvery or deep or mellow accordingly as emotion affected it, used now and then to tremble and partly to break with tones that were pathetic beyond description. Those were denotements of the soul that smoldered beneath her grave exterior and gave iridescence to every character that she embodied. Sometimes her whole being seemed to become petrified in a silent suspense more thrilling than any action—as if her imagination were suddenly enthralled by the tumult and awe of its own vast perceptions.

Madame Modjeska and Mary Anderson are also fortunate in being painted by this accomplished writer; for their charm, personal as well as temperamental, would have escaped a less sensitive brush than his.

New Standard Dictionary (The). The Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. $30.

The new Standard Dictionary in its one-volume form is a huge book containing nearly three thousand pages and full from cover to cover of the most varied information, sifted and winnowed until only the pure grain of lexicography is left. Lest this metaphor prove misleading, however, let it be said that the New Standard is by no means a mere word-book. It has, indeed, departed in its new form from traditional dictionary-making by including biographical and geographical names in its main vocabulary, thus greatly adding to the convenience of reference. This feature, making the dictionary practically an encyclopædia, is the most radical innovation that has been introduced in the present edition. The main features of the original Standard Dictionary have been followed in the new work, but many improvements have been made, including certain changes tending to the reflection of usage rather than to the establishing of new standards—as in the syllabication of words. The vocabulary now includes 450,000 terms as against the 304,000 of the first edition, showing not only the growth of the language in the twenty years since the Standard Dictionary first appeared, but the steady advance in the science of dictionary-making. To those who are familiar with the merits of the original edition no praise is needed for the New Standard; those who first make the acquaintance of this dictionary through its new edition will soon become its fast friends.

Quest of the Best (The). By William De Witt Hyde. The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $1.

This fresh addition to President Hyde's valuable treatises on ethics during the last twenty-one years is designed specially for boys, while in large measure applicable to girls. He shows that boys are naturally but pardonably bad, their badness being elemental goodness out of place and working in the wrong direction—just as dirt is matter out of place. Next, enforced or artificial goodness is unstable and unreal, and yet a stage of moral discipline that cannot be skipped in the development of real goodness enlisted in an earnest quest of the best. How

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to allure the boy to this quest, keep him in it, and bring him back to it when gone astray, is presented as the great ethical problem, and is instructively answered. A peculiar interest and value of this treatise is in its having been collaborated by President Hyde, first with his class of Bowdoin College students, and afterward with several hundred experts in work for boys, to whom he presented it in lectures last May for criticism and suggestions, to which he acknowledges much indebtedness. No more helpful book exists for those who have to do with the training of boys. Grown-up readers will find that it puts them to confession with a thoroughness that is good for conscience.

Familiar Spanish Travels. By William Dean Howells. Harper & Brothers, New York. $2.

Mr. Howells is always charming, but never more so than when traveling in a foreign country. He has a way of dealing with the most familiar localities with an intimacy, a humor, and a continuous friendliness which give beaten paths a certain novelty. This book is prefaced by a very pleasant autobiographical Introduction, in which the author apologizes to himself for having so long delayed acquaintance with Spain. It is fortunate, however, for his readers that the acquaintance did not come earlier, for in that event his report and comment would no doubt long ago have become the possession of his readers, instead of being, as to-day, a new acquisition. Burgos, San Sebastian, Toledo, Cordova, Granada, and Tarifa, among other localities, are very pleasantly sketched by this accomplished traveler.

Barbary Coast (The). By Albert Edwards. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

With a very few exceptions, the sketches of French North Africa here included first appeared in The Outlook. If they had been merely descriptive narratives, they might not demand a permanent form; but they are far more than that. Unless our critical judgment errs exceedingly, the author has caught the romance and atmosphere of Algiers and all the Barbary coast as have very few other writers. There is character, there is reflection, and there is human interest throughout. The book is literature or it is nothing; and, despite the fact stated above as to the first publication, we venture to assert that these sketch-stories are truly literature. They have charm, they have color, and they have reality.

Gulliver's Travels. By Jonathan Swift. Illustrated by Louis Rhead. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.

Mr. Howells furnishes a brief Introduction and points out that "the witchery of one of the most amusing fables ever invented" continues to appeal to children entirely apart from the satirical and political intent of the author. The edition is in a form altogether admirable, one that the publishers have used for several child classics—type, headings, and size are all but perfect. Mr. Rhead's drawings have imagination and whimsicality.

Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales. With Illustrations by W. Heaton Robinson. Henry Holt & Co., New York. $3.50.

Rather an elaborate and heavy-to-hold edition for a child, but Mr. Robinson's pictures are delicate and full of fairy fancy. His restraint in the use of tints in the color-plates is most praiseworthy. Nothing in art is too good for children, but these plates will surely also prove good enough for the adult lover of art.

Mother Goose. The Old Nursery Rhymes. Illustrated by Arthur Rackham. The Century Company, New York. $2.50.

Mr. Rackham is a clever draughtsman and a charming colorist. His art is real art, his fun is real fun. This book will rank with Mr. Rackham's "Peter Pan" and Grimm's "Fairy Tales;" in all three cases the illustrator has been successful in suiting his pictures to young children, and at the same time giving them something better than mere comicality.

Miracles of Science. By Henry Smith Williams. Harper & Brothers, New York. $2.

"Our wonderful generation!" the author exclaims; and well he may, after describing its achievements and discoveries in chemistry, astronomy, medicine, engineering, mechanics (including the wireless, the hydro-aeroplane, the gyroscope, and other recent marvels), and other branches of science and invention. The book is clear, and deals with its subject in a popular rather than technical manner.

House in Good Taste (The). By Elsie de Wolfe. The Century Company, New York. $2.50.

The author has done notable things in decorative work. The Colony Club of New York may be cited as a single example. Her beautifully printed and exquisitely illustrated volume is alive with charming suggestions enforced by reference to actual art accomplishment. It is not an essay, but consists of practical talks of the kind to interest every woman who has the wish to "get things right." Both taste and knowledge pervade the book.

Folk of the Woods. By Lucius C. Pardee. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $2.

Stories told by the Tree, the Brook, the Birds, and other wood spirits. They are a little overfanciful here and there, but the love for nature and its inner meaning are always evident. The pictures are by Charles Livingston Bull, who has a distinctive manner and a wide knowledge of animal life.

Wanderfoot. By Cynthia Stockley. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.35.

In construction and in artistic restraint this book is a marked advance over the writer's earlier work. It is the life-story of a gifted, romantic, and lovable woman. Her unconquerable spirit in attacking difficulties and her love

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of out-of-doors are refreshing, and the reader is interested in her to the end as well as in the other people who help to work out the story. In many ways the book is true to life and experience, and seems to have been written from a first-hand knowledge of many of the experiences and scenes it describes. There is a quiet "happy ending," a logical result of life's chiseling of its principal characters.

First Principles of Evolution (The). By S. Herbert. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

This volume is distinguished by its comprehensiveness, presenting all the aspects of the problems of evolution in clear and compact statements, both scientific and simple. In successive sections and sub-sections the author proceeds from the evolution of inorganic matter—cosmic, geological, atomic—to the organic evolution of animal structures. Of this the facts are presented, with numerous illustrations, and then the various theories, with a discussion of their difficulties. The third and last section is given to "superorganic" evolution, mental and moral; animal origins and human developments; the evolution of the human species and of human society—the family, the state, and religion. The discussion leans strongly toward mere naturalism, pronouncing this "sufficient for religion," and regarding the religious instinct as "not peculiarly human." "A still unknown factor," however, is admitted at the first beginnings of the evolutionary process, while it is pronounced "not supposable" that these could have been initiated by pre-existent life. That Dr. Herbert does not rest content with the naturalism of Haeckel and Pflüger, which he has declared "the most plausible hypothesis," is clear from his concluding three pages, in which he presents "the philosophy of change" set forth in Bergson's "Creative Evolution." Declaring that Bergson "seems to go to the very heart of the matter, and has revealed an aspect of evolution which is as startling as it is profound," Dr. Herbert quite abandons the field on which his whole discussion seems to have camped, saying, "It is in the field of metaphysics rather than that of biology that the riddle of evolution will have to find its final solution."

Meaning of Evolution (The). By Samuel C. Schmucker. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

Professor Schmucker undertakes an entirely different task from Dr. Herbert's. He endeavors to reconcile anti-evolutionists to the unpalatable truth which they fancy antagonistic to religion. His argument is simplified like a primer, and advances by easy steps, often in a chatty, story-telling way, with an abundance of interesting facts concerning familiar creatures—toads, katydids, grasshoppers, etc. The story of Darwin forms a chapter at the outset, and the story of the horse another near the close, with illustrations of the successive stages of its evolution through millions of years from its small five-toed progenitor. Thus, after confirming the fact of evolution as incontestable, and showing that present scientific controversies relate only to questions about its method, he reaches this conclusion: God's method of creation is revealed in nature as interpreted by science. We must accept evolution whether we like or dislike, for it is true. If we rightly understand God's revelation in the Bible, there is no contradiction between the two.

Wanderings on the Italian Riviera. By Frederic Lees. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $2.50.

To most travelers the port of Genoa is an end and aim. This is particularly true of American travelers going to and from Italy. It is almost a relief, then, as one takes up Mr. Lees's book, to discover in it that Genoa is only an incident in the long, lovely tour covering the Italian Riviera from Ventmiglia, on the French frontier, to Spezzia, away to the south. Most books on Italy have to do with the Italian cities. But the real tourist loves the country road most of all, no matter how large the towns may be along that road. Mere size or mere commercial or even artistic importance by no means determines the human interest which may attach to a place much smaller and with perhaps no commercial importance. Take, for instance, this very tour from Ventmiglia to Spezzia. If one "does" it on foot or by bicycle, or even in a carriage or motor, after the delight in the bewitching road itself, one is quite as likely to find interest and very vivid memories in such places as Bordighera, San Remo, Albenga, Alassio, Finalmarina, or Savona before he reaches Genoa as in Genoa itself; or in Nervi, Santa Margherita, Portofino, or Rapallo after he leaves the Ligurian capital. Again, in describing that capital itself, we are glad to note that Mr. Lees closely follows the associations with the place of men who have lived there—Dickens, for instance; indeed, throughout the tour the author follows in the footsteps of Byron, Shelley, Dickens, and Symonds, not to mention such names in Italian literature as Dante and Ruffini, separated as they are by centuries and importance. Thus Mr. Lees's book is well worth while to the leisurely traveler. The text has been supplemented by not always adequate but certainly striking illustration.

Poland of To-Day and Yesterday. By Nevin O. Winter. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $3.

Mr. Winter adds to his list of informative books on various countries one on Poland. It would be well if the volume could contain in a later edition a list of well-known Polish names with their proper English pronunciation. The appendices in the present edition, however, are interesting and valuable, and the book as a whole is a worthy addition to Mr. Winter's list of publications.

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THE READER'S VIEW

AUSTRALIA TO AMERICA

The following letter from the Right Reverend Charles H. Brent, Bishop of the Philippines, is self-explanatory:

"This poem appeared anonymously in the Sydney (Australia) 'Herald' a few weeks ago. The author, a dear friend, who is a man of noble character and deep influence, sent me a copy. The message is so searching and so needed by America that, without waiting for the author's consent, I am giving it to the American public through The Outlook.

"C. H. BRENT."

We may add from later information received from Bishop Brent that the author is Bishop Gilbert White. Many years ago he was supposed by his medical advisers to be an incurable—some twenty-eight or thirty years since. Thinking he had but a year to live, he chose to go to Australia. He completely recovered his health. In 1900 he was made Bishop of Carpentaria, a diocese of 600,000 square miles with a population of 40,000, of whom 4,000 only are white. He has labored there unremittingly and has influence throughout the Church in Australia. In connection with this poem we call attention to the article called "Childless Americans" in another part of this number.—THE EDITORS.

AUSTRALIA

O land of the good grass plains,
Where wander the countless kine,
Fair land of the swelling downs,
That are fat with corn and wine;

Whose capes for ten thousand miles
Shock full to the surging tide,
And girdle the far-flung hills
Where the gold and silver hide;

Where slowly the vaster winds
Than blow in the older world
Are wafting from south to north
Thy banner of peace unfurled;

O land where the whitening dawn
Turns ever a smiling face,
Where Nature is kind of heart,
Fit home for a goodly race;

O land that our fathers gained
Through hunger and thirst and toil,
Uprooting the matted scrub
And plowing the world-old soil;

They scorched on the fiery plains
And gasped on the desert sand,
They tramped out the white man's trail,
And sighted the promised land.

They waited and worked and won,
Strong men of the ancient stock,
As true to their friends as steel,
In trouble and danger rock.

Their sons, by their toiling, heirs
To leisure and wealth and ease,
Give thanks to their gods that they
Have only themselves to please.

O men of a race too small
To handle your fathers' spade,
To shoulder the ringing ax
And level the forest glade,

Ye crowd to the reeking town,
And swarm in the stifling street,
But shrink from the calling land,
Too rough for your dainty feet.

Ye measure and dole your work,
Give least for the greatest pay,
Work not for the honor of work,
But only for means to play.

Your wives have a barren womb,
Your stock fill the empty wild,
Your paddocks are filled with lambs,
Your homes with a single child.

Endowed with a land set free
From hunger, disease, and war,
Ye gather your easy gold,
And hug to yourselves your store.

"O pleasure, be thou our god,"
Comes ever your restless cry;
"To-day let us eat and drink,
To-morrow, perchance, we die."

O people that honor well
Your prophets that flatter your pride,
Grown used to recent alarms,
And turn on the other side,

Ye sneer at the faithful friends
Who care for your honest name,
Condemning as traitors vile
The sons who bewail your shame;

Who count you as souls asleep,
Not dead to the nobler strife,
Who bid you arise and stand,
And strive even yet for life;

By all the good gifts of God,
By all the fair hopes for man,
Awake from the sleep of death,
And fight while as yet ye can.

By all that have died for men,
By Christ who endured the cross,
Count nothing but honor gain,
Count all that is selfish loss.

Take up with a loyal heart
The burden upon you laid:
Who fights on the side of God
Needs never to be afraid.

Be true to the great good land,
And rear 'neath the southern sun
A race that shall hold its own,
And last till the world be done.

O land that we love so well,
Awake and redeem thy fate,
Arise ere the watchers cry,
"O land of lost hopes—too late!"

A. B.

THE CHATHAM PAGEANT

In a recent issue of The Outlook the Spectator delightfully described the historical pageant held at Deerfield, and in conclusion told of a certain college president who had recounted to

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him and others the wonderful legendry with which the Hudson Valley was possessed.

A pageant was held this year in the village of Chatham, Columbia County, New York, which endeavored to portray the historical wealth of this particular section, the absence of fame and notoriety being due largely to the fact that it was an experiment in what might be termed community life.

The pageant was given in the first week in September, and as a part of a series of evening celebrations held in the village at the time of the County Fair. These celebrations were held absolutely without hope of gain or reward, and merely as an entertainment for the people who visited the village at this time and as a benefit to the agricultural exhibition held during the day. The evening celebrations consisted on one night of an illuminated parade, fireworks, and music, and on the next of singing by a choral club, speeches, and music, the last two evenings being devoted to the historical pageant.

Chatham is a village of 2,500 people, about fifteen miles from the river, so that it had few people in comparison with other pageants, but, in proportion to its size, probably a great many more, for in all one-tenth of its population participated. Its wealth of subjects, however, was tremendous. Beginning with the landing of Hendrik Hudson and his crew at Stockport in September, 1609, the county's history was traced down through the bartering of lands by the Livingstons with the Indians; the party at the home of Katrina van Tassel in Kinderhook, as described in "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow;" the coming of the Palatine settlers to Germantown, which gained its name from them; the activity of the Tories during the Revolutionary War; the great festivities held at the home of President Martin Van Buren, where so many famous men gathered not alone to discuss with, but to be entertained by, the Fox of Kinderhook; loyal troops leaving for the Civil War, and the efforts of the Sanitary Commission during their absence. All of these episodes were given in the Chatham Pageant, and it proved such a success that it netted a goodly sum, which was given to the Women's Improvement League to purchase a park for the village.

I agree with the Spectator when he says that "living history is much easier and more convincing than studying it." People will live and die and never know the rich heritage of history which they possess. It takes action, possibly augmented by bright colors, to arouse historical interest in many, but I feel convinced that when this interest is once aroused it is extremely active and tends to create a feeling of local pride, and then, as this rich field becomes broken, a desire to search and uncover more.

The historical pageant is playing a great part in arousing people to a subject which, while admittedly young, is nevertheless most pregnant with value and incentive.

Chatham, New York. ALBERT S. CALLAN.

SENSIBLE TRADE METHODS

To those of us here in South America who are trying to keep up our end of American foreign trade nothing could appeal more than Mr. Kennan's powerful article in The Outlook for August 9 called "Screws in Blue Paper." Countless are the tales current here—all of them too true—that match the blue-paper story. Word for word the article could be parodied to make it apply to South America, and every conclusion would be even stronger, since this foreign trade is comparatively near, and the languages spoken comparatively familiar.

The especial point of Mr. Kennan's suggestions to which I wish to refer is that as to efficient methods of developing foreign trade for American manufacturers. Some who are studying this question may not know that there is already at work in the South American field a most practical scheme for advancing foreign trade. In 1911 the Chicago Association of Commerce, under the presidency of Mr. H. A. Wheeler, now President of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, appointed a resident representative of their organization in southern South America—that is, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, and Chile. This representative, Argentina born, had had successful business experience in both hemispheres, and of course had a perfect command of Spanish.

A permanent office of the Association was opened by the South American representative in Buenos Aires. Here catalogues and general information as to the articles manufactured by members of the Association are kept on file for the use of importers here wishing to get in touch with Chicago manufacturers with a view to selling their products. Inquiries for special articles or lines are sent to headquarters in Chicago, for transmission to members interested. In the event that it is found that no member of the Association is interested, the inquiry is given to any American manufacturer of the line desired. Members of the Association may always obtain from the Buenos Aires office information as to general trade requirements and conditions, as well as names of firms who might take the sales agency of their products. The representative himself does no selling whatever, being a member of the Association staff, at liberty literally to represent every member, without pecuniary interest in any. In this way he is always free to act as intermediary in arranging sales agencies for members, and as a sort of referee in cases of disagreement between manufacturers and agents here, endeavoring to settle them diplomatically.

This plan for foreign trade work is entirely free from possible conflict with anti-trust laws,

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and can in no way be considered a combination in restraint of trade.

It was gratifying to find, in summing up the work of the first two years, that the number of members of the Association known to be doing business in Buenos Aires alone had been doubled during that period; and nearly all of this increase is due to the work of the South American office. The data in this respect for the other countries have not been made up, but many agencies have been placed.

It was felt that much more than this could be accomplished with samples, therefore in 1913 the representative was authorized to take a large show-room in Buenos Aires, the exhibits of about fifty members were installed, and the exposition formally opened in July of this year.

This is the first foreign trade work of this kind in the world, and the first exposition in a foreign country ever undertaken by a private commercial organization, and it has naturally aroused much interest, especially in the city of Buenos Aires.

MARY O. CARPENTER.

Buenos Aires, Argentina.

A NURSES' SETTLEMENT IN JERUSALEM

The paragraph in The Outlook of October 11 called "A Nurses' Settlement in Jerusalem" had some errors of fact and emphasis.

An organization of women Zionists, known as the Daughters of Zion, founded in the spring of 1912, took as one of its objects the establishment of a system of district nursing among the destitute Jews of Palestine, to begin in the city of Jerusalem. The New York chapter of the Daughters of Zion, that is, Hadassan Chapter, was able to initiate this undertaking by the following means:

In January, 1913, the President of Hadassan Chapter, Miss Henrietta Szold, received an unsolicited offer from Mr. and Mrs. Nathan Straus to pay the passage and four months' salary of a nurse to Jerusalem, provided she be sent at once. It was understood that the Daughters of Zion would be responsible for all expenditures incidental to the nurse's work, and for her salary after the fourth month. At the same time one of the members of Hadassan, Miss Eva Léon, while visiting the West, enlisted the interest of a group of Chicagoans in Palestinian conditions. With the aid derived from Chicago, and from Mr. and Mrs. Straus, Hadassan Chapter sent two nurses to Palestine. Miss Léon, who is acquainted with many of the languages spoken in the Orient, accompanied the nurses at the invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Straus, and installed their work.

They had not been in Jerusalem long when one of the nurses, at Miss Léon's suggestion, offered her services to the Le-Maan Zion Eye Clinic, a Jewish institution maintained chiefly by European supporters, and the work there led to work among children in the Jewish schools. Here the nurses have already been successful in combating the ravages of trachoma, which in Jerusalem has attacked about twenty per cent of the school population. In some schools as many as eighty per cent of the children are afflicted. If neglected, trachoma often causes blindness.

Hadassan Chapter has rented a settlement house in Jerusalem, which is used as a clinic as well as a residence. There, under doctors' orders, the nurses give treatments for anæmia, malaria, trachoma, and other diseases. The nurses also direct the work of three Jewish midwives.

There are chapters of the Daughters of Zion in five other American cities besides New York, and new chapters are forming. The Daughters of Zion intend to develop their Palestinian work, and at the same time to make Zionist propaganda and foster Jewish ideals among the Jewish women in the United States.

GERTRUDE GOLDSMITH.

Hartford, Connecticut.

THE PREFERENTIAL BALLOT

Mr. Louis Heaton Pink, in a recent issue of The Outlook, in speaking of the preferential ballot which has just been adopted in Cleveland, unintentionally gave a wrong impression of that ballot in a way that is more serious than it might appear on first thought.

As one much interested in the further application of that ballot in its proper form, I beg to point out that it is better even than Mr. Pink indicated. It enables voters to express not only their first, second, and third choices out of a list of candidates for any office, but it enables them to express their support for an unlimited number of choices, the first being expressed in the first column, the second choice in the second column, and the third column, headed "Other Choices," receives the crosses for *all* other candidates whom the voter wishes to support. The fact that the number of choices is unlimited needs emphasis, because there is a tendency—happily thus far it has taken effect in only two of the larger preferential voting cities—to place a restriction upon the number of choices which a voter may express. Obviously, such restrictions tend to interfere with the possibility of all voters of like mind getting together upon a candidate of their sort, and thus to defeat one of the prime objects which the preferential ballot is intended to secure.

In an election in which there are a large number of good candidates, with the opposition massed, as is apt to be the case, behind only one, it is obviously of the highest importance that there should be no arbitrary obstruction to the good side getting together behind some one of their candidates. Limitation in the number of choices is arbitrary, dangerous, unusual, and wholly needless.

LEWIS J. JOHNSON.

Harvard University School of Engineering.

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MANY INVENTIONS

CEMENT AND CONCRETE

There was recently printed in "Many Inventions" a brief series of definitions of the nature and uses of cement, concrete, and reinforced concrete. The definitions were ascribed to "World's Work," but two or three correspondents tell us that they originally appeared in the "Technical World Magazine." These quoted paragraphs have aroused dissent among some of our readers, and to present another view, as well as because of their intrinsic interest, we give below extracts from a letter from Mr. Ernest McCullough, C.E., of Chicago:

Cement is a material with adhesive properties which binds together materials lacking in this particular. Paste, glue, mortar, etc., are cements. Mortar is composed of sand and lime, the lime acting as a cement to bind the stone or bricks together, the sand making it to a certain extent porous so air can enter the mass and harden the lime, which requires air for the purpose. Common lime mortar will not set under water; so a mortar with hydraulic properties must be used when moisture might otherwise interfere with the setting process. Hydraulic cement is composed of a limestone containing clay, generally in the proportion of one-third to one-half lime and two-thirds to one-half clay. This limestone is burned as any limestone, and then ground. It is called natural cement in America and hydraulic lime in Europe. Owing to the presence of impurities in all deposits found in nature, an artificial hydraulic cement is made by mixing lime and alumina in certain proportions and burning in kilns to incipient fusion. The result is a clinker which is ground to powder, ranging from material that will pass a mesh having ten thousand holes to the square inch to forty thousand holes to the square inch, the cement having the largest percentage of fine material showing the greatest strength. This artificially made hydraulic cement is uniform in composition, and at the present time about ninety million barrels are produced each year in the United States, while proportionate amounts are credited to every European country. The name of Portland was given to this cement because stone made from it resembled in color the building stone obtained from the quarries in Portland, England.

Molded into any desirable form, Portland cement shows a high crushing resistance, but a low tensile strength, about one-tenth the crushing strength; in this particular a stone made with hydraulic cement resembles natural stone. It will *not* sustain almost any load without injury to itself. But it does possess great compressive strength, sufficient at least for the purpose for which it is used.

Concrete is composed of broken stone, cinders, brick, gravel, or other aggregate cemented together with a mortar composed of sand, hydraulic cement, and water, mixed together in a paste. Natural cement and other hydraulic cements do not possess the strength or durability of Portland cement, so the latter is generally meant when the word cement is used. Concrete when properly made is very dense, the water and cement filling the voids in the sand and the sand-cement paste filling the voids in the aggregates. Concrete is stronger than mortar in large masses, so it is economical, and therefore used instead of cement mortar made of sand and cement or of cement only. Surface checking is more apparent the more cement the mixture contains, so the best concrete is that which uses the smallest amount of cement mortar that will fill the voids properly, and have a sufficient surplus of cement to coat each grain of sand and aggregate. Concrete is preferable to natural stone for many uses, because it is free from defects found in all natural deposits, and therefore is very durable. Cement is not attacked by the acids found free in the atmosphere, so the aggregate and sand used in concrete are protected by the coating of cement from decomposition.

Reinforced concrete is concrete reinforced with metal so that the metal will take all tensional stresses and the concrete all compressive stresses. This is done because cement and concrete in which cement is used are very weak in tension. Columns of reinforced concrete will *not* "sustain almost any concentrated burden," there being a limit to the strength of all materials. Up to a certain limit a reinforced concrete column is economical, but the limit is low. In fact, reinforced concrete columns are not the best example to give of the value of reinforced concrete, and when floor space is valuable they cannot be used, steel columns, fireproofed, occupying less space and giving the necessary strength, without having to consider a number of things still disputed by authorities.

Reinforced concrete is a very valuable structural material, and is used for floors and walls. It may be proportioned for loads that cause bending stresses, and is a competitor of steel and wood. For some buildings it is cheaper than wood, while it is in all cases a close competitor of steel.

THE USES OF MAPLE

Though at one time in the early history of the country an average of 6,000 maple trees were destroyed in clearing the ordinary New York or Pennsylvania farm, maple is to-day, according to the Department of Agriculture in one of its interesting tree bulletins, one of the most widely used and valuable native hardwoods. The wood finds place in an enormous number of articles in daily use, from rolling-pins to pianos and organs. It is one of the best woods for flooring, and is always a favorite material for the floors of roller-skating rinks and bowling alleys. It leads all other woods as a material for shoe lasts, the demand for which in Massachusetts alone exceeds thirteen million board feet annually.

Sugar maple stands near the top of the list of furniture woods in this country. The so-called "bird's-eye" effect, the Department explains, is

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probably due to buds which for some reason cannot force their way through the bark, but which remain just beneath it year after year. The young wood is disturbed each succeeding season by the presence of the bud and grows around it in fantastic forms, which are exposed when the saw cuts through the abnormal growth.

Maple, the bulletin goes on to say, is one of the chief woods used for agricultural implements and farm machinery, being so employed because of its strength and hardness. All kinds of wooden ware are made of maple, which holds important rank also in the manufacture of shuttles, spools, and bobbins. It competes with black gum for first place in the manufacture of rollers of many kinds, from those employed in house-moving to the less massive ones used on lawn-mowers. Athletic goods, school supplies, brush backs, pulleys, type cases, and crutches are a few of the other articles for which maple is in demand.

Seven species of maple grow in the United States, of which sugar maple, sometimes called hard maple, is the most important. The total cut of maple in the United States annually amounts to about 1,150,000,000 feet.

CHEESE FROM PASTEURIZED MILK

The University of Wisconsin is famed for its research work in the interest of the community at large. A recent report extols the advantages of making cheese from pasteurized milk. The sanitary gain is evident. Experiments of two years in the Dairy School of the University's College of Agriculture indicate an increased yield and better quality also. The experimenters systematically divided each day's milk into two portions to be used in a factory; one part was pasteurized and made into cheese by a representative of the College of Agriculture, while the remainder was handled by the local cheesemaker in the usual manner. The results of these tests were so satisfactory that it was decided to continue the work at other factories in 1913. Accordingly the new process was put on trial during the present season at factories located near Spring Green, De Forest, Waldo, and Sheboygan Falls. The pasteurized milk cheese has sold regularly at the ruling market prices, and the increase in yield is five per cent.

CIRCULAR SAWS OF PAPER

The latest use for paper is perhaps the most peculiar. According to a European journal, as reported in the "Scientific American," a factory is said to exist in England which is manufacturing circular saws from paper. These paper saws are used for the manufacturing of fine furniture, veneer, and other thin plates of wood, which must be treated with special care. Some time ago circular saws made from drawing-paper were shown in an English exposition. The saws were driven by an electric motor and produced fine boards, which could not have been made better even by the finest steel saw. The veneers made in this way are said to be so smooth that the cabinet-makers can use them without further planing.

WOODEN SHOES MADE IN THE UNITED STATES

In this country beech is the favorite material for wooden shoes, the manufacture of which has reached considerable proportions in the United States, according to the Department of Agriculture, which has just issued a bulletin on the use of the wood. These shoes, the Department says, cost from 60 to 75 cents a pair and are good for two years. They are worn by those who have to work in cold or wet places, such as tanneries, breweries, and livery stables, and by workmen in steel mills and glass factories who must walk on hot grates or floors. Farmers, too, are classed among the users.

Beech wood is put to a very much wider range of uses than the average person would be likely to suspect. The Department says beech enters into hundreds of articles from hobby-horse rockers to butchers' blocks. We walk on beech floors, eat off beech picnic plates, carry beech baskets, play with beech toys, sit on beech chairs, and in dozens of other ways use articles made of beech almost every day of our lives. Its freedom from taste fits the wood especially for articles which come in contact with foodstuffs, and beech meat boards, skewers, lard tubs, butter boxes, sugar hogsheads, refrigerators, dishes, spoons, and scoops are widely used.

Only one species of beech grows naturally in the United States, but few trees in this country have a wider commercial range. It extends from the Gulf of Mexico into eastern Canada, and in practically every place where it grows it is cut for market. The total yearly output of beech wood in the United States is approximately five hundred million board feet.

A MILITARY NOVELTY

A German authority describes an illuminating projectile of a new type manufactured by Krupp. The projectile, built like a shrapnel, contains a number of layers of flame bulbs in a black powder matrix separated by thin annular partitions. A black powder fuse runs through the center of the projectile like a core. The base of the projectile is filled with six "feathers" made of thin metal, which are held in place, folded up against the projectile, when it is fired. When the projectile reaches the highest point in its trajectory, an automatic arrangement releases the "feathers" at the base, arresting its flight and causing it to float in the air point downward. At this moment the first layer of flame balls is thrown out. The other layers are thrown out successively, lighting up the field.—*American Machinist.*

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BY THE WAY

The original deed to Manhattan Island, given by the Indians to Peter Minuit and attesting the sale in 1630 to Kilian van Rensselaerwyck, was sold lately at auction in New York City for $1,700. It had been in the possession of a collector and went to another collector. This document, it would seem, ought to be public property, and the municipality should make an effort to secure it.

When beauty enters a tournament with aristocracy, beauty wins. At least that is the impression one gets from this newspaper despatch from England: "At a dinner given in honor of the tenth anniversary of the new Gaiety Theatre's opening, four peeresses, all former Gaiety actresses, were present. They were: the Countess of Orkney, the Marchioness of Headfort, Countess Poulett, and Lady Churston."

Vincent Astor, the present head of the Astor family, has closed a profitable transaction for his estate, in a manner that indicates his inheritance of the thrift of his ancestors. He has leased a plot of ground on Thirty-third Street, opposite the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, for eighty years, at a rental of $121,250 a year, the total rent that the estate will receive from the transaction thus approximating $10,000,000. But eighty years is a long time, and perhaps the single tax or some other restriction may considerably reduce this great sum.

When Oklahoma's capital was moved from Guthrie to Oklahoma City, the former State capitol grounds and buildings were sold to the Methodist University for a nominal sum. The gift, which was opposed on the ground that the University is a sectarian institution, has been confirmed by the courts, it being held that an institution which is open to all classes and sects is not sectarian.

The word "scarecrow" would never have come into being if the farmers of old had possessed the knowledge of our Department of Agriculture, for the nondescript images that have disfigured our corn-fields for generations are now declared by that Department to be superfluous. The crow is a good bird, according to the Department's experts. A careful examination of his stomach shows that the insects he kills more than counterbalance the small amount of grain he destroys.

Governor Glynn, of New York State, in an address before the convention of the New York Waterways Association, advocated the deepening of the Hudson River so that ocean steamers could go to Albany and connect directly with the new Erie Canal, which is approaching completion.

A Cleveland man, Mr. W. V. Backus, has had the happy idea of forming an Appreciation League, the aim of which is to promote happiness by making a record of good deeds, courtesies, etc., on the part of employees of every kind. When a person gets three "courtesy reports" from members of the League, he is to have a special letter from the League's secretary and a badge of merit.

Miss Nancy Leishman, daughter of John G. A. Leishman, former American Ambassador to Germany, recently became the bride of Duke Karl of Croy, a descendant of Hungarian kings and member of a family that is related to many of the reigning houses of Europe.

The long-drawn-out but inevitable tragedy that results from taking bichloride of mercury tablets by mistake has had another exemplification in the pathetic case of Isaac Levy, a Brooklyn tailor, who took a large dose of the fatal drug and survived for more than a week, his powerful constitution and indomitable will giving hope at one time that he would defeat Death. Why will people persist in taking medicine in the dark? Let Goethe's motto, "More Light," be inscribed over every medicine closet.

Who was the inventor of that delectable combination known as ice-cream soda? Some one originated the idea, and that within the memory of persons not too old to have a vivid recollection of the time when such congealed deliciousness was unknown to the world. One newspaper correspondent claims that the happy idea was born in the mind of an Elizabeth, New Jersey, confectioner; another says that the honor belongs to a Detroit man. *Quien sabe?*

An amusing quibble on the part of a recently deceased New York lawyer succeeded in freeing two Chinese clients. They were accused of stealing electricity. Quoth the man of the law, addressing his opponent, "What is electricity?" The prosecution couldn't answer offhand, and the astute attorney secured the dismissal of the complaint on the plea that there could be no charge of theft unless a statement could be made of what had been stolen.

Not all waiters are eager for tips. An officer of the International Hotel Workers' Union, Edward Blochlinger, says: "I will keep up the anti-tipping agitation, and, whether it comes in six months or five years, I hope to live to see the day when the Legislature will forbid tipping. Then to get good waiters the hotels and not the hotel patrons will have to pay."

There is a surplus of labor even in a new industry like automobile truck driving. A strike of the drivers of motor mail trucks in New York City recently resulted in applications from 1,600 men to fill the places of 31 strikers.

While records of all sorts are being broken daily, this one should have consideration: A

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man recently operated on in a Brooklyn hospital had carried a needle in his right leg since he was five years old. At the age of fifty-five his left knee began to swell, and on going to the hospital the badly corroded piece of needle was extracted, having passed through his body from right knee to left in its peregrinations of half a century!

Ten years ago Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., met his death by starvation while exploring that bleakest of lands, Labrador. His comrade on the trip, Dillon Wallace, who survived, recently went again to Labrador with a tablet as a memorial to his friend. In trying to reach the place where Hubbard died, his canoe upset and the tablet was lost. Wallace, however, persevered and finally carved this inscription on a boulder: "Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., intrepid explorer and practical Christian, died here October 18, 1903. John xiv., fourth verse."

Next to smoking in a powder works, probably the most foolhardy thing a man can do is to smoke in a garage; and yet the force of habit sometimes prevails even there. Three smokers in New York City garages were recently fined $20 each for their forgetfulness, and six other offenders who lit cigars in factories were reminded of their life-imperiling delinquency in the same manner.

Felix Berol, a memory expert, recently gave a lecture in which he stated that as a boy he had a very poor memory. He had, however, great strength of purpose, and gradually overcame his defect until he could accomplish a feat like this: At a dinner party of forty men, only three of whom he had met before, he asked that the other guests rise, one after another, and each one speak his own name. Then Mr. Berol repeated the thirty-nine names in their right order without a mistake.

Just when is the period of mild weather called Indian summer due? A newspaper wiseacre says the term is "loosely applied to what few days of pleasant weather are found in November." The new Standard Dictionary says Indian summer is "a period of mild weather occurring in the autumn," but complicates the question by suggesting the analogy of "the English St. Luke's or St. Martin's summer," St. Luke's Day being the 18th of October and St. Martin's Day the 11th of November.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie, at a recent dinner, took occasion to praise the "War Lord" of Germany, the Kaiser, for his desire for peace, and also for the Kaiser's announcement that he would henceforth abstain from all alcoholic beverages. Emperor William is probably the first German potentate who has ever risked his popularity with his people by making such a pledge.

Sky-scrapers are not in favor with architects and other experts, according to a report of the New York City Heights of Buildings Commission. Of forty experts consulted, thirty-seven declared themselves in favor of limiting the height of city structures. William Guerin, chief of the Bureau of Fire Prevention, in favoring limitation, said that the Fire Department cannot readily rescue persons from the outside of a burning building at a greater height than six stories.

A discourteous phrase used by a telephone operator caused the loss of a $3,500 order recently, says a daily paper. When the customer called up the firm, the girl attendant, instead of asking the customer's name in a tactful way, such as, "May I have your name?" or, "Who is speaking, please?" put the point-blank question, "Who are you?" The response was, "I'm a man who is through buying from your house until I can have respectful treatment."

One suggestion that would help the telephone situation as between the caller and the operator has often been made, but needs repetition. It is that the operator should give the name of her firm at once, instead of saying "Yes" and thus necessitating an unnecessary question as to the identity of the firm. It saves a lot of time for an operator to say "Brown & Jones" at once in response to a call, instead of requiring the customer to say it as an interrogation.

Abandoned mines in Akron, New York, are being profitably used in growing mushrooms. The mines were damp, cool, and dark, and a shrewd Chicago man saw that they were ideal places for mushroom culture—better even than hot-houses in certain ways. Three crops a year are now being harvested from these supposedly useless mines.

The United States possesses more than half of all the motor vehicles in the world. In a total of 1,161,911 for the world, the United States has 628,185, England 125,728, France 89,185, and Germany 70,006. These figures are for 1912; the numbers at present doubtless far exceed those here given.

Hongkong, one of the greatest ports of the world, saw but one sailing ship last year; even the Chinese junks are being driven out of commission by the competition of power-driven vessels. Thirty-five years ago, says the American Consul at Hongkong, one-fourth of the total entries of vessels were those of sailing ships—no less than 688 in all.

"Travel" shows a picture of the work being done in restoring the Alhambra Palace at Granada, Spain. The arabesque border on the walls of the Court of Myrtles is being replaced, but unfortunately not in the inimitable style of the original tiling. "The secret of reproducing the exquisite luster and coloring of this," says "Travel," "is a lost art."

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